IS THE

AMERICAN

DREAM

ACHIEVABLE?

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中文 SIMPLIFIED CHINESE

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QUESTION TEN

IS THE

AMERICAN
DREAM
ACHIEVABLE?

EXPLORING AMERICA'S HISTORY THROUGH COMPELLING QUESTIONS

SUPPORTING QUESTIONS

1 WAS IT BENEFICIAL OR HARMFUL FOR AMERICA TO BECOME A NATION OF CITIES?

2 CAN WRITERS MAKE THE WORLD A BETTER PLACE?

3 WHAT DOES IT MEAN TO BE PROGRESSIVE?

4 WAS SUFFRAGE ESSENTIAL TO IMPROVE THE LIVES OF WOMEN?

IS THE AMERICAN DREAM ACHIEVABLE?

Not everybody was getting rich. The new wealthy class, although more prominent, larger, and richer than any class in American history, was still rather small. People soon began to ask fundamental questions. How did one get rich in America? Was it because of a combination of hard work and intelligence? Was it because of inheritance? Did education and skill play a role, or was it simply luck?

When a popular conception of survival of the fittest grew from Charles Darwin's idea of the process of natural selection in the wild, the world was forever changed. Church leaders condemned him as a heretic, and ordinary people everywhere cringed at the idea that humans may have evolved from apes.

Despite an initial backlash against Darwin's theory, it was inevitable that intellectuals would soon point Darwin's concepts at human society. These Social Darwinists believed that the humans who were the most fit became the most successful. Whatever people had the necessary skills to prosper — perhaps talent, brains, or hard work — would be the ones who would rise to the top. Why were some people poor? To the Social Darwinist, the answer was obvious. They simply did not have the required skills.

Into this mix of wealth and poverty, another idea was born. First articulated by Horatio Alger, the author of dime novels aimed at the hordes of immigrants rushing to America's shores. Although he penned many stories, each book answered the question of how to get rich in America. Alger believed that a combination of hard work and good fortune. Pluck and luck, in his words, was the key.

A typical Alger story would revolve around a hardworking immigrant who served on the bottom rung of the corporate ladder, perhaps as a stock boy. One day he would be walking down the street and see a safe falling from a tall building. The hero would bravely push aside the hapless young woman walking below and save her life. Of course, she was the boss's daughter.

并非每个人都致富。新富阶层虽然比美国历史上任何一个阶级更突出，更大，更富有，但仍然相当小。人们很快就开始提出基本问题。一个人如何在美国变富？是因为辛勤工作和智慧的结合？是因为继承吗？教育和技能是否起作用，还是只是运气？

当查尔斯·达尔文（Charles Darwin）关于野外自然选择过程的观念成为一种流行的适者生存概念时，世界就永远发生了变化。教会领袖谴责他是一个异教徒，普通人到处都认为人类可能是从猿进化而来的。

尽管最初强烈反对达尔文的理论，知识分子很快就会将达尔文的概念指向人类社会。这些社会达尔文主义者认为最适合的人成为最成功的人。无论人们有什么必要的技能来繁荣－也许是人才，大脑或努力工作－都会成为崛起的人。为什么有些人穷？对社会达尔文主义者来说，答案是显而易见的。他们根本没有所需的技能。

在这种财富与贫困的混合中，另一个想法诞生了。最初由 Horatio Alger 表达，角钱小说的作者针对涌入美国海岸的大批移民。虽然他写了很多故事，但每本书都回答了如何在美国致富的问题。阿尔杰认为，努力工作和好运相结合。用他的话说，采取和运气是关键。

一个典型的阿尔杰故事将围绕一个勤奋的移民，他在公司阶梯的最底层服务，也许是一个股票男孩。有一天，他会走在街上，看到从高楼落下的保险箱。英雄会勇敢地把倒

The two would get married, and he would become vice-president of the corporation.

This is what the masses wished to believe. Those at the bottom looking up rejected Social Darwinism. They hoped and believed that success would not come to a select few based on nature or divine intervention. Anyone who worked hard could make it in America. This idea became the American Dream.

Is Alger's American Dream a reality or just folklore? What do you think? Is the American Dream achievable?

霉的年轻女子推到一边，挽救她的生命。当然，她是老板的女儿。两人结婚了，他将成为公司的副总裁。

这是群众希望相信的。最底层的人拒绝了社会达尔文主义。他们希望并相信，基于自然或神圣干预的少数人不会取得成功。任何努力工作的人都可以在美国生活。这个想法成了美国梦。

阿尔杰的美国梦是现实还是民间传说？你怎么看？美国梦是否可以实现？

这是群众希望相信的。最底层的人拒绝了社会达尔文主

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F I R S T   Q U E S T I O N

WAS IT BENEFICIAL OR HARMFUL FOR AMERICA TO BECOME A NATION OF CITIES?

INTRODUCTION

In the beginning, Americans were farmers. Stories of the first settlers at Jamestown and the Pilgrims of Plymouth all recount learning to grow corn or tobacco. Southern planters grew cotton, and western farmers built windmills to pump water out of the ground to irrigate the prairies and produce the amber waves of grain immortalized in song.

But we are no longer a nation of farmers. In fact, as of 2012, 80% of Americans live in cities. How did this happen, and when? What cause all those farmers to give up on the land and fight the hustle and bustle of city life? And what happened to the cities when everyone moved in?

We think of our cities as multicultural places.   People from many backgrounds mingle. The smells of foods from many homelands waft through the air. The air is often polluted, the streets noisy, the subways crowded. Where did all these people come from? When did we become more than just a nation of White Protestants?

Was it beneficial or harmful that we became a nation of multicultural cities?

介绍

起初，美国人是农民。詹姆斯敦的第一批定居者和普利茅斯朝圣者的故事都讲述了学习种植玉米或烟草的故事。南部的种植者种植了棉花，西部农民建造了风车，将水从地下抽出来灌溉大草原，并在歌曲中产生永生化的琥珀色谷物。

但我们不再是农民的国家。事实上，截至 2012 年，80％的美国人生活在城市。这是怎么发生的，何时发生？是什么原因导致所有农民放弃土地，抗击城市生活的喧嚣？当每个人搬进来时，城市发生了什么？

我们认为我们的城市是多元文化的地方。来自不同背景的人们混在一起。来自许多家园的食物的气味在空中飘荡。空气经常被污染，街道嘈杂，地铁拥挤。所有这些人都来自哪里？我们什么时候变得不仅仅是一个白人新教徒的国家？

我们成为多元文化城市的国家是有益还是有害？

THE NEW IMMIGRANTS

With the exception of Native Americans, America is a nation of immigrants, and the turn of the century was a period of enormous immigration. Immigrants shifted the demographics of America's rapidly growing cities. Although immigration had always been a force of change in the United States, it took on a new character in the late nineteenth century.

Beginning in the 1880s, the arrival of immigrants from mostly southern and eastern European countries rapidly increased while the flow from northern and western Europe remained relatively constant. The previous waves of immigrants from northern and western Europe, particularly Germany, Great Britain, and the Nordic countries, were relatively well off, arriving in the country with some funds and often moving to the newly settled western territories. In contrast, the newer immigrants from southern and eastern European countries, including Italy, Greece, and Russia.

Many were **pushed** from their countries by a series of ongoing famines, by the need to escape religious, political, or racial persecution, or by the desire to avoid compulsory military service. They were also **pulled** by the promise of land, jobs, education, and religious freedom. Whatever the reason, these **New Immigrants** arrived without the education and finances of the earlier waves of immigrants, and settled more readily in the port towns where they arrived, rather than setting out to seek their fortunes in the West. By 1890, over 80% of the population of New York City would be either foreign-born or children of foreign-born parentage. Other cities saw huge spikes in foreign populations as well, though not to the same degree. Due in large part to the fact that **Ellis Island**, a major immigration station was in New York harbor, New York City's status as a city of many cultures, was cemented at the turn of the century.

THE IMPACT OF IMMIGRATION

The number of immigrants peaked between 1900 and 1910, when over nine million people arrived in the United States. To assist in the processing and management of this massive wave of immigrants, the Bureau of Immigration in New York City, which had become the official port of entry, opened Ellis Island in 1892.

Today, nearly half of all Americans have ancestors who, at some point in time, entered the country through the portal at Ellis Island. Doctors or nurses inspected the immigrants upon arrival, looking for any signs of infectious diseases. Most immigrants were admitted to the country with only a cursory glance at any other paperwork. Roughly 2% of the arriving immigrants were denied entry due to a medical condition or criminal history. The rest would enter the country by way of the streets of New York, many unable to speak English and totally reliant on finding those who spoke their native tongue.

Seeking comfort in a strange land, as well as a common language, many immigrants sought out relatives, friends, former neighbors, townspeople,

新移民

除美洲原住民外，美国是一个移民国家，世纪之交是一个移民大国。移民改变了美国快速发展的城市的人口统计数据。虽然移民一直是美国的变革力量，但它在十九世纪末期呈现出一种新的特征。

从 19 世纪 80 年代开始，来自大多数南欧和东欧国家的移民的到来迅速增加，而来自北欧和西欧的流量保持相对稳定。之前来自北欧和西欧的移民潮，特别是德国，英国和北欧国家，相对富裕，以一些资金抵达该国，并经常搬到新落户的西部地区。相比之下，来自南欧和东欧国家的新移民，包括意大利，希腊和俄罗斯。

许多人被一系列持续的饥荒，逃避宗教，政治或种族迫害，或逃避义务兵役的欲望从他们的国家推出。他们也被土地，工作，教育和宗教自由的承诺所拉扯。不管是什么原因，这些新移民在没有早期移民浪潮的教育和资金的情况下到达，并更容易在他们抵达的港口城镇定居，而不是开始寻求在西方寻求财富。到 1890 年，纽约市 80％以上的人口要么是外国出生的，要么是外国出生的孩子。其他城市也出现了大量外国人口的飙升，但程度不尽相同。在很大程度上，由于埃利斯岛是一个主要的移民站位于纽约港，纽约市作为一个多元文化城市的地位，在世纪之交被巩固了。

移民的影响

移民人数在 1900 年至 1910 年间达到顶峰，超过 900 万人抵达美国。为了帮助处理和管理这一庞大的移民浪潮，纽约市移民局已成为官方入境口岸，于 1892 年开放了埃利斯岛。

今天，将近一半的美国人拥有祖先，他们在某个时间点通过埃利斯岛的门户进入该国。医生或护士在抵达时检查了移民，寻找传染病的任何迹象。大多数移民都被允许进入该国，只是粗略地看了一眼其他文书工作。大约 2％的抵达移民因医疗条件或犯罪记录而被拒绝入境。其余的人将通过纽约的街道进入这个国家，许多人不会说英语，完全依赖找到那些说自己母语的人。

在一个陌生的土地上寻求安慰，以及一种共同的语言，许多移民寻找已经在美国城市定居的亲戚，朋

and countrymen who had already settled in American cities. This led to a rise in **ethnic neighborhoods** within the larger city. Little Italy, Chinatown, and many other communities developed in which immigrant groups could find everything to remind them of home, from local language newspapers to ethnic food stores. While these enclaves provided a sense of community to their members, they added to the problems of urban congestion, particularly in the poorest slums where immigrants could afford housing.

友，前邻居，市民和同胞。这导致了大城市内的民族社区的增加。小意大利，唐人街和许多其他社区发展起来，移民群体可以找到一切提醒他们回家，从当地语言报纸到民族食品商店。虽然这些飞地为其成员提供了一种社区感，但它们增加了城市拥堵的问题，特别是在移民可以负担住房的最贫困的贫民窟。

Primary Source: Photograph

The central building at Ellis Island in New York Harbor, photographed here in 1905.

主要来源：照片

1905 年拍摄于纽约港埃利斯岛的中央大楼。

NATIVISM

The demographic shift at the turn of the century was later confirmed by the Dillingham Commission, created by Congress in 1907 to report on the nature of immigration in America. The commission reinforced this ethnic identification of immigrants and their simultaneous discrimination. The report put it simply:

These newer immigrants looked and acted differently. They had darker skin tone, spoke languages with which most Americans were unfamiliar, and practiced unfamiliar religions, specifically Judaism and Catholicism. Even the foods they sought out at butchers and grocery stores set immigrants apart. Because of these easily identifiable differences, new immigrants became easy targets for hatred and discrimination. If jobs were hard to find, or if housing was overcrowded, it was easy to blame the immigrants.

Growing numbers of Americans resented the waves of new immigrants, resulting in a backlash dubbed **nativism** by historians. This belief in the superiority of native-born Americans over immigrants, was led by the Reverend **Josiah Strong** who fueled the hatred and discrimination in his

本土化

世纪之交的人口变化后来得到了国会于 1907 年创建的迪林汉姆委员会的证实，该委员会报告了美国移民的性质。该委员会加强了对移民的种族认同及其同时的歧视。该报告简单地说：

这些新移民看起来和行为不同。他们的肤色较深，讲的是大多数美国人不熟悉的语言，并且练习不熟悉的宗教，特别是犹太教和天主教。甚至他们在屠夫和杂货店寻找的食物也将移民分开。由于这些容易识别的差异，新移民成为仇恨和歧视的容易对象。如果难以找到工作，或者住房过于拥挤，很容易将移民归咎于移民。

越来越多的美国人对新移民的浪潮感到不满，导致历史学家强烈反对本土化。这种对本土出生的美国人对移民的优越性的信念，由约瑟亚·斯特朗牧师领导，

bestselling book, "Our Country: Its Possible Future and Its Present Crisis," published in 1885. In a revised edition that reflected the 1890 census records, he clearly identified who he believed were undesirable immigrants, those New Immigrants from southern and eastern European countries, as a key threat to the moral fiber of the country, and urged all good Americans to face the challenge. Several thousand Americans answered his call by forming the American Protective Association, the chief political activist group to promote legislation curbing immigration into the United States. The group successfully lobbied Congress to adopt both an English language literacy test for immigrants, which eventually passed in 1917, and laid the groundwork for the subsequent limits on immigration.

他在 1885 年出版的畅销书"我们的国家：可能的未来及其目前的危机"中助长了仇恨和歧视。反映了 1890 年人口普查记录的修订版，他清楚地确定了他认为不受欢迎的移民，来自南欧和东欧国家的新移民，作为该国道德纤维的主要威胁，并敦促所有优秀美国人面对挑战。数千名美国人通过组建美国保护协会（American Protective Association）来回应他的呼吁，美国保护协会是促进移民进入美国的立法的主要政治活动组织。该小组成功游说国会通过了移民英语语言能力测试，最终于 1917 年通过，并为随后的移民限制奠定了基础。

In 1882, Nativists convinced Congress to pass the **Chinese Exclusion Act**, barring this ethnic group in its entirety. 25 years later, Japanese immigration was restricted by executive agreement. These two Asian groups were the only ethnicities to be completely excluded from America.

1882 年，本土主义者说服国会通过"排华法案"，完全禁止这个族群。 25 年后，日本移民受到行政协议的限制。这两个亚洲群体是唯一完全被排除在美国之外的种族。

Primary Source: Editorial Cartoon

This cartoon celebrates the Chinese Exclusion Act, showing Uncle Sam washing America by expelling Chinese immigrants.

主要来源：编辑漫画

这部漫画庆祝"排华法案"，显示山姆大叔通过驱逐中国移民来洗劫美国。

But millions had already come. During the age when the **Statue of Liberty** beckoned the world's "huddled masses yearning to breathe free," American diversity mushroomed. Each brought pieces of an old culture and made contributions to a new one. Although many former Europeans swore to their deaths to maintain their old ways of life, their children did not

但数百万人已经来了。在自由女神召唤世界"蜷缩在一起渴望自由呼吸的群众"的时代，美国的多样性如雨后春笋般涌现。每个人都带来了一种古老的文化，并为新的文化做出了贡献。虽然许多前欧洲人为了维持他们过去的生活方式而发誓要死，但他们的孩子并

agree. Most enjoyed a higher standard of living than their parents, learned English easily, and sought American lifestyles. At least to that extent, America was a **melting pot**.

不同意。大多数人享有比父母更高的生活水平，轻松学习英语，并寻求美国生活方式。至少在这个程度上，美国是一个大熔炉。

URBANIZATION

城市化

Urbanization, the process of shifting from a country in which most people live on farms, to one where most people live in cities, occurred rapidly in the second half of the 19th Century in the United States for a number of reasons. The new technologies of the time led to a massive leap in industrialization, requiring large numbers of workers. New electric lights and powerful machinery allowed factories to run 24 hours a day, seven days a week. Workers were forced into grueling twelve-hour shifts, requiring them to live close to the factories.

城市化是从大多数人生活在农场的国家转变为大多数人居住在城市的国家的过程，出于多种原因在 19 世纪下半叶在美国迅速发生。当时的新技术带来了工业化的巨大飞跃，需要大量工人。新的电灯和强大的机械设备使工厂每周 7 天，每天 24 小时运行。工人被迫进行十二小时的艰苦轮班，要求他们住在工厂附近。

While the work was dangerous and difficult, many were willing to leave behind the declining prospects of preindustrial agriculture in the hope of better wages in industrial labor. Furthermore, many of the New Immigrants settled and found work near the cities where they first arrived. The nation's cities became an invaluable economic and cultural resource for people who missed their homelands.

虽然这项工作既危险又困难，但许多人愿意留下工业化前农业前景下滑的希望，希望提高工业劳动力的工资水平。此外，许多新移民定居并在他们初到的城市附近找到工作。这个国家的城市成为错过家园的人们宝贵的经济和文化资源。

Although cities such as Philadelphia, Boston, and New York sprang up from the initial days of colonial settlement, the explosion in urban population growth did not occur until the mid-1800s.

尽管费城，波士顿和纽约等城市从殖民定居的最初几天开始兴起，但城市人口增长的爆发直到 19 世纪中期才出现。

At this time, the attractions of city life, and in particular, employment opportunities, grew exponentially due to rapid changes in industrialization. Before the mid-1800s, factories, such as the early textile mills, had to be located near rivers and seaports, both for the transport of goods and the necessary water power. Production was dependent upon seasonal water flow, with cold, icy winters all but stopping river transportation entirely. The development of the steam engine transformed this need, allowing businesses to locate their factories near urban centers. The factories moved to where the most workers could be found, and workers followed the jobs, leading to a rapid rise in city populations.

在这个时候，由于工业化的快速变化，城市生活的吸引力，特别是就业机会，呈指数增长。在 19 世纪中期之前，早期的纺织厂等工厂必须位于河流和海港附近，用于运输货物和必要的水力。生产依赖于季节性的水流，寒冷，冰冷的冬天几乎完全停止了河流运输。蒸汽机的发展改变了这种需求，使企业能够将他们的工厂安置在城市中心附近。工厂迁移到可以找到大多数工人的地方，工人们跟踪工作，导致城市人口迅速增加。

Eventually, cities developed their own unique characters based on the core industry that spurred their growth. In Pittsburgh it was steel, in Chicago it was meat packing, in New York the garment and financial industries, and Detroit the automobiles reigned. But all cities at this time, regardless of their industry, suffered from the universal problems that rapid expansion brought with it, including concerns over housing and living conditions, transportation, and communication. These issues were almost always rooted in deep class inequalities, shaped by racial divisions, religious differences, and ethnic strife, and distorted by corrupt local politics.

最终，城市根据促进其增长的核心产业发展了自己独特的人物。在匹兹堡它是钢铁，在芝加哥它是肉类包装，在纽约的服装和金融业，底特律的汽车在位。但是，目前所有城市，无论其行业如何，都遭受了快速扩张带来的普遍问题，包括对住房和生活条件，交通和通信的担忧。这些问题几乎总是植根于深刻的阶级不平等，这种不平等是由种族分裂，宗教差异和种族冲突所塑造的，并被腐败的地方政治所扭曲。

GROWING OUT AND GROWING UP

As cities grew and sprawled outward, a major challenge was efficient **mass transit** within the city, from home to factories or shops, and then back again. Most transportation infrastructure was used to connect cities to each other, typically by rail or canal. Prior to the 1880s, transportation within cities was the usually the **omnibus**. This was a large, horse-drawn carriage, often placed on iron or steel tracks to provide a smoother ride. While omnibuses worked adequately in smaller, less congested cities, they were not equipped to handle the larger crowds that developed at the close of the century. The horses had to stop and rest and horse manure became an ongoing problem.

In 1887, Frank Sprague invented the **electric trolley**, which worked along the same concept as the omnibus, with a large wagon on tracks, but was powered by electricity rather than horses. The electric trolley could run throughout the day and night, like the factories and the workers who fueled them. But it also modernized less important industrial centers, such as the southern city of Richmond, Virginia. As early as 1873, San Francisco engineers adopted pulley technology from the mining industry to introduce cable cars and turn the city's steep hills into elegant middle-class communities. However, as crowds continued to grow in the largest cities, such as Chicago and New York, trolleys were unable to move efficiently through the crowds of pedestrians. To avoid this challenge, city planners elevated the trolley lines above the streets, creating **elevated trains**, or **L-trains**, as early as 1868 in New York City, and quickly spreading to Boston in 1887 and Chicago in 1892. Transportation evolved one step further to move underground as **subways**. Boston's subway system began operating in 1897, and was quickly followed by New York and other cities.

With the development of efficient means of mass transportation, **suburbs** developed. Boston and New York spawned the first major suburbs. No metropolitan area in the world was as well served by railroad commuter lines at the turn of the twentieth century as New York, and it was the rail lines to Westchester from the Grand Central Terminal commuter hub that enabled its development. Westchester's true importance in the history of American suburbanization derives from the upper-middle class development of villages including Scarsdale, New Rochelle and Rye serving thousands of businessmen and executives from Manhattan.

The last limitation that large cities had to overcome was the ever-increasing need for space. Eastern cities, unlike their Midwestern counterparts, could not continue to grow outward, as the land surrounding them was already settled. Geographic limitations such as rivers or the coast also hampered sprawl. In all cities, citizens needed to be close enough to urban centers to conveniently access work, shops, and other core institutions of urban life. The increasing cost of real estate made upward growth attractive, and so did the prestige that towering buildings carried for the businesses that occupied them. Workers completed the first **skyscraper** in Chicago, the

成长和成长

随着城市的增长和向外扩张，一个主要的挑战是城市内的有效公共交通，从家到工厂或商店，然后再回来。大多数交通基础设施用于将城市相互连接，通常通过铁路或运河。在 19 世纪 80 年代之前，城市内的交通通常是综合性的。这是一辆大型马车，通常放在铁轨或钢轨上，以提供更顺畅的乘坐体验。虽然综合体在较小，较不拥挤的城市中充分发挥作用，但它们并没有能力应对本世纪末发展起来的人群。马不得不停下来休息，马粪成为一个持续存在的问题。

1887 年，弗兰克·斯普拉格（Frank Sprague）发明了电动手推车，它与综合车的概念相同，在轨道上有一个大型货车，但是由电而不是马供电。电动小车可以在白天和晚上运行，就像工厂和为其加油的工人一样。但它也使不太重要的工业中心现代化，例如弗吉尼亚州的南部城市里士满。早在 1873 年，旧金山工程师就采用了采矿业的滑轮技术来引进缆车，并将城市陡峭的山丘变成优雅的中产阶级社区。然而，随着芝加哥和纽约等大城市的人群不断增长，手推车无法有效地穿过行人群。为了避免这一挑战，城市规划者将电车线路提升到街道上方，早在 1868 年就在纽约市建造高架列车或 L 列车，并于 1887 年迅速扩展到波士顿，1892 年迅速扩展到波士顿。交通运输又向前迈进了一步作为地铁移动到地下。波士顿的地铁系统于 1897 年开始运营，紧随其后的是纽约和其他城市。

随着高效公共交通工具的发展，郊区发展起来。波士顿和纽约催生了第一个主要郊区。世界上没有一个大都市区在二十世纪之交的铁路通勤线路上也像纽约一样，而且从大中央枢纽通勤枢纽到韦斯特切斯特的铁路线使其得以发展。威斯彻斯特在美国郊区化历史中的真正重要性源于斯卡斯代尔，新罗谢尔和拉伊等村庄的中上阶层发展，为数千名来自曼哈顿的商人和高管提供服务。

大城市必须克服的最后一个限制是对空间的需求不断增加。与中西部城市不同，东部城市无法继续向外发展，因为周围的土地已经落户。河流或海岸等地理限制也阻碍了蔓延。在所有城市中，公民需要足够接近城市中心，以方便地进入工作，商店和其他城市生活的核心机构。房地产成本上升使得向上增长具有吸引力，高耸的建筑物为占据它们的企业带来的声望也是如此。 1885 年，工人们在芝加哥完成了第一座摩天

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ten-story Home Insurance Building, in 1885. Although engineers had the capability to go higher, thanks to new steel construction techniques, they required another vital invention in order to make taller buildings viable. In 1889, **Elisha Otis** delivered, with the invention of the safety elevator. This began the skyscraper craze, allowing developers in eastern cities to build and market prestigious real estate in the hearts of crowded metropoles.

大楼，即 10 层的家庭保险大楼。虽然工程师有能力提高，但由于采用了新的钢结构技术，他们需要另一项重要的发明才能使更高的建筑物更加可行。 1889 年，Elisha Otis 随着安全电梯的发明而交付。这开始了摩天大楼的热潮，允许东部城市的开发商在拥挤的大都市心中建立和营销着名的房地产。

Primary Source: Photograph

The Flatiron Building, one of the world's first skyscrapers which graces Fifth Avenue in New York City. It was completed in 1902.

主要来源：照片

Flatiron 大楼是世界上第一座耸立纽约第五大道的摩天大楼之一。它于 1902 年完成。

CHALLENGES AND INOVATIONS

As the country grew, certain elements led some towns to morph into large urban centers, while others did not. The following four innovations proved critical in shaping urbanization at the turn of the century: electric lighting, communication improvements, transportation, and the rise of skyscrapers. As people migrated for the new jobs, they often struggled with the absence of these basic services. Even necessities, such as fresh water and proper sanitation, often taken for granted in the countryside, presented a greater challenge in urban life.

挑战和冒险

随着国家的发展，某些元素导致一些城镇变成大型城市中心，而其他城市却没有。事实证明，以下四项创新对于在世纪之交塑造城市化至关重要：电气照明，通信改善，交通运输和摩天大楼的崛起。随着人们为新工作迁移，他们经常因缺乏这些基本服务而苦苦挣扎。即使在农村经常被视为理所当然的淡水和适当的卫生设施等必需品也给城市生活带来了更大的挑战。

Thomas Edison patented the incandescent light bulb in 1879. This development quickly became common in homes as well as factories, transforming how all social classes lived. Although slow to arrive in rural areas of the country, electric power became readily available in cities when the first commercial power plants began to open in 1882. When **Nikola Tesla** subsequently developed the AC (alternating current) system for the Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Company, power supplies for lights and other factory equipment could extend for miles from the power source. AC power transformed the use of electricity, allowing urban centers to physically cover greater areas.

Gradually, cities began to illuminate the streets with electric lamps to allow the city to remain alight throughout the night. No longer did the pace of life and economic activity slow substantially at sunset, the way it had in smaller towns. The cities, following the factories that drew people there, stayed open all the time.

The telephone, patented in 1876 by **Alexander Graham Bell**, greatly transformed communication both regionally and nationally. The telephone rapidly supplanted the telegraph as the preferred form of communication. By 1900, over 1.5 million telephones were in use around the nation, whether as private lines in the homes of some middle- and upper-class Americans, or jointly used party lines in many rural areas.

In the same way that electric lights spurred greater factory production and economic growth, the telephone increased business through the more rapid pace of demand. With telephones, orders could come constantly, rather than via mail order. More orders generated greater production, which in turn required still more workers. This demand for additional labor played a key role in urban growth, as expanding companies sought workers to handle the increasing consumer demand for their products.

Lights and communication might have illuminated the cities, but much of the urban poor, including a majority of incoming immigrants, lived in horrible housing. If the skyscraper was the jewel of the American city, the tenement was its boil. In 1878, a publication offered $500 to the architect who could provide the best design for mass housing. James Ware won the contest with his plan for a dumbbell **tenement**. This structure was thinner in the center than on its extremes to allow light to enter the building, no matter how tightly packed the tenements may be. Unfortunately, these vents were often filled with garbage. The air that managed to penetrate also allowed a fire to spread from one tenement to the next more easily.

The cities stank. The air stank, the rivers stank, the people stank. Although public sewers were improving, disposing of human waste was increasingly a problem. People used private cesspools, which overflowed with a long,

托马斯·爱迪生于 1879 年为白炽灯泡申请了专利。这一发展在家庭和工厂中迅速普及，改变了所有社会阶层的生活方式。虽然该国农村地区的抵达速度很慢，但是当 1882 年第一座商业电厂开始运营时，城市的电力随处可见。当尼古拉·特斯拉随后为西屋电气和制造公司开发了交流电（AC）（交流电）系统时，用于灯和其他工厂设备的电源可以从电源延伸数英里。交流电改变了电力的使用，使城市中心能够覆盖更大的区域。

渐渐地，城市开始用电灯照亮街道，让城市整晚都能亮相。日落时的生活节奏和经济活动不再像小城镇那样大幅减缓。这些城市在吸引那里的工厂之后，一直保持开放状态。

这部电话于 1876 年由亚历山大·格雷厄姆·贝尔（Alexander Graham Bell）获得专利，极大地改变了地区和国家的交流。电话迅速取代了电报作为首选的通信方式。到 1900 年，全国有超过 150 万部电话在使用，无论是作为一些中产阶级和上层阶级美国家庭的私人电话，还是在许多农村地区共同使用党派线路。

就像电灯刺激工厂生产和经济增长一样，电话通过更快的需求增加了业务。使用电话，订单可以不断地发送，而不是通过邮购。更多的订单产生了更多的生产，这反过来又需要更多的工人。这种对额外劳动力的需求在城市增长中发挥了关键作用，因为不断扩张的公司寻求工人来应对消费者对其产品不断增长的需求。

灯光和通信可能已经照亮了城市，但是大多数城市贫民，包括大多数新移民，都生活在可怕的住房中。如果摩天大楼是美国城市的宝石，那么这个房屋就是它的沸腾。 1878 年，一份出版物向建筑师提供了 500 美元，可以为大规模住房提供最佳设计。 James Ware 凭借他的哑铃项目计划赢得了比赛。这种结构在中心比在极端情况下更薄，以允许光线进入建筑物，无论物业单位的堆积程度如何。不幸的是，这些通风口经常充满垃圾。设法渗透的空气也让火更容易从一个矿权区扩散到下一个矿权地。

城市发臭。空气发臭，河水发臭，人们发臭。虽然公共下水道正在改善，但处理人类废物越来越成为一个问题。人们使用私人污水池，这里充满了长时间的大

hard rain. Old sewage pipes dumped the waste directly into the rivers or bays. These rivers were often the very same used as water sources.

Trash collection had not yet been systemized. Trash was dumped in the streets or in the waterways. Better sewers, water purification, and trash removal were some of the most pressing problems for city leadership. As the 20th Century dawned, many improvements were made, but the cities were far from sanitary.

雨。旧污水管将废物直接倾倒入河流或海湾。这些河流通常与水源相同。

垃圾收集尚未系统化。垃圾倾倒在街道或水道中。更好的下水道，净化水和垃圾清除是城市领导层面临的最紧迫问题。随着 20 世纪的到来，人们进行了许多改进，但这些城市远非卫生。

Primary Source: Photograph

An example of a tenement building at the turn of the century. They were overcrowded, with many more people, and sometimes families, living in a single unit than the designers ever intended.

主要来源：照片

世纪之交的唐楼建筑的一个例子。他们人满为患，有更多的人，有时是家庭，住在一个单位，而不是设计师的预期。

Because of the massive overcrowding and poor sanitation, disease was widespread. **Cholera** and **Yellow Fever** epidemics swept through the slums on a regular basis. **Tuberculosis** was a huge killer. Infants suffered the most. Almost 25% of babies born in late-1800s cities died before reaching the age of one. **Sewer systems** and the development of clean water delivery were one some of the most important technological reforms of the time.

由于大规模过度拥挤和卫生条件差，疾病普遍存在。霍乱和黄热病流行病定期席卷贫民窟。结核病是一个巨大的杀手。婴儿受害最深。19 世纪后期城市出生的婴儿中有近 25% 在达到 1 岁之前就已经死亡。下水道系统和清洁水输送的发展是当时最重要的技术改革之一。

Poverty often breeds crime. Desperate people will often resort to theft or violence to put food on the family table when the factory wages would not suffice. Youths who dreaded a life of monotonous factory work and pauperism sometimes roamed the streets in gangs. Vices such as gambling, prostitution, and alcoholism were widespread. Gambling rendered the hope of getting rich quick. Prostitution provided additional income. Alcoholism furnished a false means of escape. The old system of town sheriffs were clearly inadequate for city life. The development of professional police forces is a legacy of the age of urbanization. In tandem with police forces, fire departments grew to meet the demand of city life. While small towns might be able to rely on a team of volunteer firefighters, or simply a bucket brigade of townspeople, cities required firefighters on duty day and night.

贫穷经常滋生犯罪。当工厂工资不足时，绝望的人经常会偷窃或暴力将食物放在家庭餐桌上。那些害怕单调工厂工作和贫困生活的青少年有时会在街头徘徊。赌博，卖淫和酗酒等恶习很普遍。赌博带来了快速致富的希望。卖淫提供了额外的收入。酒精中毒提供了一种错误的逃避方式。古老的城镇治安官制度显然不适合城市生活。专业警察部队的发展是城市化时代的遗产。随着警察部队，消防部门逐渐成长，以满足城市生活的需求。虽然小城镇可能依靠一群志愿消防员，或者只是一个市民的斗式旅，城市要求日夜值班的消防员。

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As the population became increasingly centered in urban areas while the century drew to a close, some reformers began to question the wisdom of moving into an entirely built environment. Was it wise to live in a world without trees, without lakes, rivers, or anything green?

Through the **City Beautiful Movement**, leaders such as **Frederick Law Olmsted** worked to bring nature back to the cities. Olmsted, one of the earliest and most influential designers of urban green space, and the original designer of **Central Park** in New York, worked to introduce the idea of the City Beautiful movement at the Columbian Exposition in 1893. From wide-open green spaces to brightly painted white buildings, connected with modern transportation services and appropriate sanitation, the White City of the Exposition set the stage for American urban city planning for the next generation. This model encouraged city planners to consider three principal tenets. First, create larger park areas inside cities. Second, build wider boulevards to decrease traffic congestion and allow for lines of trees and other greenery between lanes. And third, add more suburbs in order to mitigate congested living in the city itself. As each city adapted these principles in various ways, the City Beautiful movement became a cornerstone of urban development well into the twentieth century.

随着人口越来越集中在城市地区，而本世纪即将结束，一些改革者开始质疑进入一个完全建成的环境的智慧。生活在没有树木，没有湖泊，河流或任何绿色的世界里，这是明智的吗？

通过城市美丽运动，弗雷德里克·劳·奥姆斯特德（Frederick Law Olmsted）等领导人致力于将自然带回城市。奥姆斯特德是城市绿地最早和最有影响力的设计师之一，也是纽约中央公园的原设计师，他于1893 年在哥伦比亚博览会上介绍了城市美丽运动的理念。从广阔的绿色空间到明亮的白色建筑，与现代交通服务和适当的卫生设施相结合，白色城市博览会为下一代美国城市规划奠定了基础。该模型鼓励城市规划者考虑三个主要原则。首先，在城市内部建立更大的公园区域。其次，建造更宽阔的林荫大道，以减少交通拥堵，并允许在车道之间的树木和其他绿化线。第三，增加更多郊区，以减轻城市拥挤的生活。随着每个城市以各种方式适应这些原则，城市美丽运动成为二十世纪以来城市发展的基石。

Primary Source: Photograph

The Polo Grounds, the first home of the New York Yankees baseball team. Professional baseball provided an inexpensive form of entertainment for the masses.

主要来源：照片

Polo Grounds，纽约洋基棒球队的第一个主场。职业棒球为大众提供了一种廉价的娱乐形式。

ENJOYING URBAN LIFE

Americans in cities wanted something to take their minds off of the hardships of daily life, and Americas entertainers rose to the challenge. One form of popular entertainment was **vaudeville**, large stage variety shows that included everything from singing, dancing, and comedy acts to live animals and magic. The vaudeville circuit gave rise to several prominent performers, including magician **Harry Houdini**, who began his

享受城市生活

在城市中的美国人希望能够摆脱日常生活的艰辛，而美洲艺人则面临挑战。杂耍娱乐的一种形式是杂耍表演，大型舞台综艺节目包括从唱歌，跳舞和喜剧表演到动物和魔法的各种表演。歌舞杂耍的巡回演出引起了几位杰出的表演者，其中包括魔术师哈里·胡迪尼（Harry Houdini），他在这些综艺节目中开始了他的

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career in these variety shows before his fame propelled him to solo acts. Although the new film industry would eventually kill off vaudeville, many of the most successful vaudeville performers moved from stage to screen.

职业生涯，之后他的名气推动了他的独唱表演。虽然新的电影业最终会杀掉歌舞杂耍，但许多最成功的歌舞表演者都会从舞台到屏幕。

A major form of entertainment for the working class was professional baseball. Club teams transformed into professional baseball teams with the Cincinnati Red Stockings, now the Cincinnati Reds, in 1869. Soon, professional teams sprang up in several major American cities. Baseball games provided an inexpensive form of entertainment, where for less than a dollar, a person could enjoy a double-header, two hot dogs, and a beer. But more importantly, the teams became a way for newly relocated Americans and immigrants of diverse backgrounds to develop a unified civic identity, all cheering for one team. By 1876, the National League had formed, and soon after, cathedral-style ballparks began to spring up in many cities. Fenway Park in Boston, Forbes Field in Pittsburgh, and the Polo Grounds in New York all became touch points where working-class Americans came together to support a common cause.

工人阶级的主要娱乐形式是职业棒球。俱乐部队伍于 1869 年与辛辛那提红袜队（现为辛辛那提红人队）一起转变为职业棒球队。不久，专业队伍在美国几个主要城市兴起。棒球比赛提供了一种廉价的娱乐形式，只需不到一美元，一个人可以享受双头，两个热狗和啤酒。但更重要的是，这些团队成为新移民美国人和不同背景移民的一种方式，以发展统一的公民身份，为一个团队欢呼。到 1876 年，国家联盟已经形成，不久之后，大教堂式的球场开始在许多城市涌现。波士顿的芬威公园，匹兹堡的福布斯球场和纽约的马球场都成为工人阶级聚集在一起支持共同事业的接触点。

Other popular sports included prize-fighting, which attracted a predominantly male, working- and middle-class audience who lived vicariously through the triumphs of the boxers during a time where opportunities for individual success were rapidly shrinking, and college football, which paralleled a modern corporation in its team hierarchy, divisions of duties, and emphasis on time management.

其他受欢迎的体育项目包括奖品招募，吸引了主要是男性，工薪阶层和中产阶级的观众，他们在个人成功的机会迅速萎缩的时期通过拳击手的胜利而代替生活，以及与现代平行的大学橄榄球公司在团队层级，职责分工和对时间管理的重视。

CONCLUSION

结论

As is clear, the turn of the century also turned American into city dwellers, and that shift was anything but easy. Overcrowding, pollution, poor sanitation, a lack of transportation, crime, fire, and overt racism all challenged the Americans, and newly arrived Americans, who built our cities. But, as we have come to expect of ourselves, those who struggled also persevered and developed ingenious ways to overcome seemingly insurmountable challenges. They built skyscrapers, streetcars, sewers and suburbs. They learned English, became citizens and gave us new foods, music, art and entertainment.

很明显，世纪之交也将美国变成了城市居民，而这种转变绝非易事。过度拥挤，污染，卫生条件差，交通不便，犯罪，火灾和公开的种族主义都给美国人和新来的美国人带来了挑战，他们建造了我们的城市。但是，正如我们对自己的期望一样，那些挣扎的人也坚持不懈地开发出巧妙的方法来克服看似无法克服的挑战。他们建造了摩天大楼，有轨电车，下水道和郊区。他们学习英语，成为公民，并为我们提供了新的食物，音乐，艺术和娱乐。

But with urbanization also died Thomas Jefferson's dream of a nation built on yeoman farmers. Americans would never again be tied to the land. We would be a nation of people who lived among paved streets, brick high rises, and electric lights instead of being regulated by the passing of the four seasons and the rising and setting of the sun.

但随着城市化进程的推移，托马斯杰斐逊也梦想建立在自耕农上的国家。美国人永远不会再与土地联系在一起。我们将成为一个人们居住在铺砌的街道，高楼砖和电灯之间的国家，而不是受四季的过去和太阳的升起和设置的控制。

What do you think? Was it beneficial or harmful for America to become a nation of cities?

你怎么看？成为一个城市国家对美国有益还是有害？

SUMMARY

Beginning in the 1880s, America experienced about four decades of massive immigration. These people are called the New Immigrants because they were different from earlier immigrants in important ways. First, they were poor and didn't come with many skills. They left their homelands to escape poverty, war, famine and persecution. They came in search of jobs, religious freedom, and opportunities for their children. Most came from Southern and Eastern Europe. They were Italian, Greek, Romanian, Polish and Russia. Also, Chinese immigration increased.

New York City's Ellis Island was a major immigration station and the city grew and expanded its reputation as multicultural melting pot. Immigrants tended to settle into neighborhoods with support systems in place that they could rely on. The growth of ethnic enclaves such as Chinatown or Little Italy was a hallmark of urban growth at this time.

Some Americans did not like these new immigrants. Nativism once again was common. Efforts to make English the official language expanded. Anti-Semitism grew. Eventually, the KKK embraced these anti-immigrant ideas. The Chinese Exclusion Act officially banned all immigration from China, a victory for nativists. In contrast, the Statue of Liberty stood as a sign of welcome and symbol of all that immigrants hoped for in their adopted country.

Immigrants and migration from the countryside drove urbanization. It was around the year 1900 that America became a nation where more people lived in cities than on farms. As cities grew, so did problems associated with urban areas. Garbage and polluted water, crime, fire, poverty, and overcrowding were issues. In response, city leaders created professional police and fire departments.

Mass transit was developed. Cities built the first subways and trolley systems. Mass transit made it possible for people to live in suburbs and commute to work, so cities expanded outward. Otis's safety elevator made skyscrapers possible, and cities expanded upward as well. Edison and Tesla's work on electricity resulted in electric lights both inside and out. Bell's telephone also revolutionized American city life.

Tenements were built to help house the poor. These low-rent apartments soon became overcrowded and emblematic of the problems with growing cities.

Cities built sewer systems to combat disease. The City Beautiful Movement encouraged the construction of parks such as Central Park in New York City. Americans went to baseball games for fun. Vaudeville performers travelled from place to place in the time before movies to entertain the masses.

摘要

从 19 世纪 80 年代开始，美国经历了大约四十年的大规模移民。这些人被称为新移民，因为他们在重要方面与早期移民不同。首先，他们很穷，并没有很多技能。他们离开家乡逃离贫困，战争，饥荒和迫害。他们来寻找工作，宗教自由和子女的机会。大多数来自南欧和东欧。他们是意大利人，希腊人，罗马尼亚人，波兰人和俄罗斯人此外，中国移民增加了。

纽约市的埃利斯岛（Ellis Island）是一个主要的移民站，该城市的发展和扩大其多元文化大熔炉的声誉。移民倾向于安置到社区，他们可以依靠支持系统。唐人街或小意大利等民族聚居区的增长是当时城市发展的标志。

一些美国人不喜欢这些新移民。本土再一次是常见的。努力使英语成为官方语言的扩展。反犹太主义增长了。最终，KKK 接受了这些反移民的想法。"排华法案"正式禁止所有来自中国的移民，这是本土主义者的胜利。相比之下，自由女神像是一个受欢迎的象征，也是移民在其所在国家所希望的所有象征。

移民和农村移民推动了城市化进程。大约在 1900 年，美国成为一个人口居住在城市而不是农场的国家。随着城市的发展，与城市地区相关的问题也随之增加。垃圾和污染的水，犯罪，火灾，贫困和过度拥挤都是问题。作为回应，城市领导人创建了专业的警察和消防部门。

开发了公共交通。城市建造了第一个地铁和小车系统。公共交通使人们可以住在郊区并通勤上班，因此城市向外扩展。奥的斯的安全电梯使摩天大楼成为可能，城市也向上扩展。爱迪生和特斯拉的电力工作导致内外电灯。贝尔的电话也彻底改变了美国城市生活。

建造物业以帮助安置穷人。这些廉租公寓很快就变得人满为患，成为城市发展问题的象征。

城市建造了下水道系统来对抗疾病。城市美丽运动鼓励建造纽约中央公园等公园。美国人为了好玩而去参加棒球比赛。歌舞表演者在电影播放之前从一个地方到另一个地方旅行，以娱乐群众。

KEY CONCEPTS

Push Factors: Reasons to leave a place. In the time of the New Immigrants these included religious persecution, war, famine and poverty.

Pull Factors: Reasons to come to a place. In the time of the New Immigrants these included jobs, religious freedom, education and land.

Nativism: A belief that people born in the United States are superior to immigrants.

Melting Pot: The idea that America is made up of a blending of many diverse cultural influences.

Urbanization: The process of developing cities.

City Beautiful Movement: A movement at the turn of the century to build parks in major cities. It was driven by the idea that humans should not live in an environment built of stone and concrete. Frederick Law Olmstead who designed Central Park in New York City was the most famous proponent of this idea.

Vaudeville: A form of entertainment popular in the early 1900s. It featured groups of travelling performers who put on played music, acted, or performed magic and similar acts. This form of entertainment died out as movies became popular.

LOCATIONS

Ellis Island: Major immigration station in New York Harbor.

Angel Island: Major immigration station in San Francisco Harbor.

Ethnic Neighborhoods: Areas in major cities where groups of immigrants concentrated. They usually had restaurants, grocery stores, newspapers, support organizations and churches that served the neighborhood's immigrant population.

Statue of Liberty: Symbol of the pull factors that attracted the New Immigrants. It stands on an island in New York Harbor.

Suburbs: Cities built around a larger city. These developed because mass transit made it possible to live far from where a person worked.

Central Park: Famous park in Manhattan in New York City designed by Frederick Law Olmstead.

LAWS

Chinese Exclusion Act: Law passed in 1882 ending immigration from China and preventing Chinese immigrants already in the United States from applying for citizenship.

PEOPLE AND GROUPS

New Immigrants: The name for the immigrants who arrived in the United States in the late 1800s and early 1900s. They were different from the "Old Immigrants" in that they were often from Southern and Eastern Europe, were Catholic, Orthodox Christian or Jewish instead of Protestant. Unlike earlier groups of immigrants, they were also often poor and uneducated with few skills.

Josiah Strong: A leading nativist in the late 1800s. He disliked the New Immigrants and argued for literacy tests. He eventually helped end the waves of immigration that characterized the turn of the century.

Elisha Otis: Inventor of a safe electric elevator. His invention made skyscrapers possible.

Thomas Edison: Prolific American inventor. His creations included the electric lightbulb, phonograph (record player) and movie camera.

Nikola Tesla: Electrical engineer and inventor who developed alternating current that powers all of our electrical systems today.

Alexander Graham Bell: Inventor of the telephone and founder of the various Bell Telephone Companies.

Frederick Law Olmsted: Champion of the City Beautiful Movement and designer of many famous city parks including Central Park in New York City.

Harry Houdini: Famous vaudeville magician.

SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY

Mass Transit: Any form of transportation in cities designed to move many people. These include busses, subways, trolley cars and elevated trains.

Omnibus: A forerunner to the modern city bus. It was a carriage that ran on railroad tracks that was pulled by horses.

Electric Trolley: A trolley that ran on electricity.

Elevated Train: Similar to a subway, these trains ran on tracks built on bridges above city streets. The most famous is in Chicago and nicknamed the "L."

Subway: A form of mass transit that has trains running in tunnels underground. The first in the United States was in Boston, but the most famous is in New York City.

Skyscraper: Tall buildings in cities. They made it possible for many more people to live and work in a smaller area.

Tenement: Public housing designed to provide inexpensive places to live in cities. Designed by James Ware, they were usually overcrowded, dirty, and places where disease was common.

Cholera: A disease common in major cities at the turn of the century caused by drinking polluted water. Sewer systems helped eliminate the disease.

Yellow Fever: A disease common in major cities at the turn of the century caused by the bite of mosquitos who bred in puddles of standing water. Paved streets and sewer systems reduced both the mosquitos and the disease.

Tuberculosis: A lung disease that spread in overcrowded cities at the turn of the century.

Sewer Systems: Major public works at the turn of the century designed to clean wastewater and provide clean drinking water.

INTRODUCTION

In modern times, our media world revolves around video, formerly on television or the movie theaters, but increasingly on small screens, and even more so, in video we produce ourselves with smartphones. Before the advent of video, however, the information travelled in print, and the Gilded Age was great time to be a reader or writer. Millions of Americans wanted something to read and newspapers, magazines and books sold like wildfire.

Of course, not everything that was written back then was worth reading, just as not everything that is posted online now is worth watching. However, in the same way that our cameras today can capture and expose wrongdoing, the writers of the Gilded Age put pen to paper and tried to effect change.

What do you think? Can writers make the world a better place?

介绍

在现代，我们的媒体世界围绕视频，以前在电视或电影院，但越来越多的小屏幕，甚至更多，在视频中，我们用智能手机自己生产。然而，在视频出现之前，信息以印刷方式传播，而镀金时代则是成为读者或作家的好时机。数以百万计的美国人想要读书，报纸，杂志和书籍像野火一样出售。

当然，并非当时所写的所有内容都值得一读，就像现在在网上发布的所有内容都值得一看。然而，正如今天我们的相机可以捕获并揭露错误行为的方式一样，镀金时代的作者用纸笔试图改变。

你怎么看？作家能让世界变得更美好吗？

THE PRINT REVOLUTION

In a time before the Internet, smart phones, television and even radio, paper was the way Americans communication and found out what was happening in the world. Even very small towns had at least one newspaper, and large cities had dozens. Many newspapers published morning and evening editions and when breaking news happened, news boys in the street could be heard hawing, "Extra! Extra! Read all about it!" as papers put out special editions.

The mail carried magazines, pamphlets, flyers and Americans flocked to newsstands and bookstores. In a time of print, publishing was an enormous business. As Americans streamed into cities from small towns and overseas, **journalists** realized the economic potential. If half of Boston's citizens would buy a newspaper three times a week, a publisher could become a millionaire.

The **linotype machine**, invented in 1883, allowed for much faster printing of many more papers. The market was there. The technology was there. All that was necessary was a group of entrepreneurs bold enough to seize the opportunity. Anybody with a modest sum to invest could buy a printing press and make newspapers. The result was an American revolution in print.

The modern American newspaper took its familiar form during the Gilded Age. To capitalize on those who valued Sunday leisure time, the Sunday newspaper was expanded and divided into supplements. The subscription of women was courted for the first time by including fashion and beauty tips. For Americans who followed the emerging professional sports scene, a sports page was added.

Dorothea Dix, the pen name of Elizabeth Gilmer, became the nation's first advice columnist for the New Orleans Picayune in 1896. To appeal to those completely disinterested in politics and world events, Charles Dana of the New York Sun invented the **human interest story**. These articles often retold a heart-warming everyday event like it was national news.

THE YELLOW PRESS

Competition for readers was fierce, especially in New York. The two titans of American publishing were Joseph Pulitzer and William Randolph Hearst. These men stopped at nothing to increase their readership. If a news story was too boring, why not twist the facts to make it more interesting? If the truth was too bland, why not spice it up with some innocent fiction? If all else failed, the printer could always increase the size of the headlines to make a story seem more important.

This kind of sensationalism was denounced by veteran members of the press corps. Labeled **Yellow Journalism** by its critics, this practice was

印刷革命

在互联网，智能手机，电视甚至广播之前的一段时间里，纸张是美国人交流的方式，并且发现了世界上正在发生的事情。即使是非常小的城镇也至少有一份报纸，大城市也有几十家。许多报纸都刊登了早报和晚报，当突发新闻发生时，街上的新闻男孩可以听到，"额外！额外！阅读所有相关内容！"随着论文推出特别版。

邮件杂志，小册子，传单和美国人蜂拥到报摊和书店。在印刷时期，出版是一项巨大的业务。随着美国人从小城镇和海外流入城市，记者意识到了经济潜力。如果一半的波士顿公民每周三次购买一份报纸，那么出版商就可能成为百万富翁。

该造型机于 1883 年发明，可以更快地印刷更多纸张。市场在那里。技术就在那里。所有必要的是一群勇于抓住机会的企业家。任何投资不多的人都可以购买印刷机和报纸。结果是美国的印刷革命。

现代美国报纸在镀金时代采用了它熟悉的形式。为了利用那些重视周日休闲时间的人，星期日报纸被扩大并分为补充。通过包括时尚和美容秘诀，首次向女性订阅。对于追随新兴职业体育界的美国人来说，增加了一个体育页面。

Dorothea Dix，伊丽莎白吉尔默的笔名，于 1896 年成为新奥尔良 Picayune 的全国第一位建议专栏作家。为了吸引那些对政治和世界事件完全不感兴趣的人，纽约太阳报的查尔斯达纳发明了人类的兴趣故事。这些文章经常重温一场令人心潮澎湃的日常事件，就像国家新闻一样。

黄色新闻

对读者的竞争非常激烈，特别是在纽约。美国出版的两位巨头是约瑟夫普利策和威廉伦道夫赫斯特。这些人无所事事地增加了他们的读者群。如果新闻报道太无聊，为什么不扭曲事实让它更有趣？如果真相过于平淡，为什么不用一些无辜的小说来加油呢？如果一切都失败了，打印机总是可以增加标题的大小，使故事看起来更重要。

新闻团队的资深成员谴责这种轰动效应。它的评论家标记黄色新闻，这种做法在 19 世纪后期的新闻中很普遍。

prevalent in late-19th century news. At its most harmless, it bent reality to add a little extra excitement to everyday life. At its most dangerous, it fired up public opinion and helped push America into war with Spain.

它最无害，它弯曲现实，为日常生活增添一点额外的刺激。它最危险的是，它引发了公众舆论，并帮助推动美国与西班牙开战。

Primary Source: Photograph

One of the many newsboys who hawked newspapers in the cities at the turn of the century. This was a common form of child labor.

主要来源：照片

这是世纪之交在城市里兜售报纸的众多新闻记者之一。这是一种常见的童工形式。

Nevertheless, as a business strategy, it worked. Pulitzer increased the daily circulation of the Journal from 20,000 to 100,000 in one year. By 1900, it had increased to over a million.

然而，作为一种商业战略，它起作用了。普利策在一年内将期刊的日发行量从 20,000 增加到 100,000。到 1900 年，它已经增加到超过一百万。

Joseph Pulitzer purchased the New York World in 1883 after making the St. Louis Post-Dispatch the dominant daily in that city. Pulitzer strove to make the New York World an entertaining read, and filled his paper with pictures, games and contests that drew in new readers. Crime stories filled many of the pages, with headlines like "Was He a Suicide?" and "Screaming for Mercy." In addition, Pulitzer charged readers only two cents per issue but gave readers eight and sometimes 12 pages of information. The only other two cent paper in the city never exceeded four pages.

约瑟夫·普利策尔（Joseph Pulitzer）在圣路易斯邮报（St. Louis Post-Dispatch）成为该市的主要日报后，于 1883 年购买了纽约世界。普利策努力使纽约世界成为一个有趣的读物，并在他的论文中填写了吸引新读者的图片，游戏和竞赛。犯罪故事填满了许多页面，标题如"他是自杀吗？"和"为了怜悯而尖叫。"此外，普利策每个问题只向读者收取 2 美分，但给读者提供了 8 页，有时还有 12 页的信息。这个城市唯一的另外两分钱纸张从未超过四页。

While there were many sensational stories in the New York World, they were by no means the only pieces, or even the dominant ones. Pulitzer believed that newspapers were public institutions with a duty to improve society, and he put the World in the service of social reform.

虽然纽约世界有许多耸人听闻的故事，但它们绝不是唯一的，甚至是主导的。普利策认为报纸是公共机构，有责任改善社会，他把世界放在社会改革的服务中。

Just two years after Pulitzer bought it, the World became the highest circulation newspaper in New York. Older publishers, envious of Pulitzer's success, began criticizing the World, harping on its crime stories and stunts while ignoring its more serious reporting. Charles Dana, editor of the New York Sun, attacked The World and said Pulitzer was "deficient in judgment and in staying power."

在普利策购买它之后两年，世界成为纽约发行量最高的报纸。贬低普利策成功的老出版商开始批评世界，抨击其犯罪故事和特技，同时忽视其更为严肃的报道。"纽约

Pulitzer's approach made an impression on **William Randolph Hearst**, a mining heir in California who acquired the San Francisco Examiner from his father in 1887. Hearst read the World while studying at Harvard University and resolved to make the Examiner as bright as Pulitzer's paper.

Under his leadership, the Examiner devoted 24 percent of its space to crime, presenting the stories as morality plays, and sprinkled adultery and risqué illustrations on the front page. A month after Hearst took over the paper, the Examiner ran this story about a hotel fire:

"HUNGRY, FRANTIC FLAMES. They Leap Madly Upon the Splendid Pleasure Palace by the Bay of Monterey, Encircling Del Monte in Their Ravenous Embrace From Pinnacle to Foundation. Leaping Higher, Higher, Higher, With Desperate Desire. Running Madly Riotous Through Cornice, Archway and Facade. Rushing in Upon the Trembling Guests with Savage Fury. Appalled and Panic-Striken the Breathless Fugitives Gaze Upon the Scene of Terror. The Magnificent Hotel and Its Rich Adornments Now a Smoldering heap of Ashes. The Examiner Sends a Special Train to Monterey to Gather Full Details of the Terrible Disaster. Arrival of the Unfortunate Victims on the Morning's Train — A History of Hotel del Monte — The Plans for Rebuilding the Celebrated Hostelry — Particulars and Supposed Origin of the Fire."

It was classic yellow press style.

Hearst could be hyperbolic in his crime coverage; one of his early pieces, regarding a "band of murderers," attacked the police for forcing Examiner reporters to do their work for them. However, while indulging in these stunts, the Examiner also increased its space for international news, and sent reporters out to uncover municipal corruption and inefficiency.

The work of the reporters and the popularity of newspapers could result in more than just interesting reading. In one well-remembered story, Examiner reporter Winifred Black was admitted into a San Francisco hospital and discovered that indigent women were treated with "gross cruelty." The entire hospital staff was fired the morning the piece appeared.

With the success of the Examiner established by the early 1890s, Hearst began looking for a New York newspaper to purchase, and acquired the New York Journal in 1895, a penny paper which Pulitzer's brother Albert had sold to a Cincinnati publisher the year before.

太阳报"编辑查尔斯·达纳袭击了"世界"，称普利策"缺乏判断力和持久力"。

普利策的方法给威廉·伦道夫·赫斯特（William Randolph Hearst）留下了印象，威廉·伦道夫·赫斯特是加利福尼亚州的采矿继承人，他于 1887 年从父亲手中收购了旧金山考官。赫斯特在哈佛大学读书时读了世界，并决定让考官像普利策的论文一样光明。

在他的领导下，考官将其 24% 的空间用于犯罪，将故事作为道德剧，并在头版上散布通奸和诡计插图。在赫斯特接手报纸一个月后，考官报了一篇关于酒店火灾的故事：

"HUNGRY，FRANTIC FLAMES。他们疯狂地掠过蒙特利湾的灿烂游乐宫，在巅峰时期从巅峰到基金会的拯救德尔蒙特。越来越高，越来越高，渴望绝望。通过檐口，拱门和门面疯狂地奔跑。用狂野的愤怒冲向颤抖的客人。令人震惊和惊慌失措的逃亡者惊恐地看着恐怖的场景。宏伟的酒店及其丰富的装饰现在是一堆闷烧的灰烬。审查员向蒙特雷派出一列特殊列车，以收集可怕灾难的全部细节。早上火车上不幸受害者的到来 - 德尔蒙特酒店的历史 - 重建着名的旅馆的计划 - 火灾的详细信息息和起源。"

这是经典的黄色印刷风格。

在他的犯罪报道中，赫斯特可能是夸张的;他的一篇早期作品，关于"凶手组织"，袭击警察强迫考官记者为他们工作。然而，尽管沉迷于这些特技，审查员还增加了国际新闻的空间，并派出记者揭露市政腐败和低效率。

记者的工作和报纸的普及可能不仅仅是有趣的阅读。在一个记忆犹新的故事中，考官记者 Winifred Black 被送进旧金山一家医院，发现贫穷的女性受到了"严重虐待"。整个医院的工作人员在早上被解雇了。

随着 19 世纪 90 年代早期成立的考官的成功，赫斯特开始寻找纽约报纸购买，并于 1895 年收购了纽约期刊，这是普利策的兄弟阿尔伯特在一年前卖给辛辛那提出版社的一份便士纸。

Metropolitan newspapers started going after department store advertising in the 1890s, and discovered the larger the circulation base, the better. This drove Hearst; following Pulitzer's earlier strategy, he kept the Journal's price at one cent (compared to The World's two cent price) while providing as much information as rival newspapers. The approach worked, and as the Journal's circulation jumped to 150,000, Pulitzer cut his price to a penny, hoping to drive his young competitor into bankruptcy.

In a counterattack, Hearst raided the staff of the World in 1896. While most sources say that Hearst simply offered more money, Pulitzer, who had grown increasingly abusive to his employees, had become an extremely difficult man to work for, and many World employees were willing to jump at the chance to get away from him.

Although the competition between the World and the Journal was fierce, the papers were temperamentally alike. Both supported Democrats, both were sympathetic to labor and immigrants and both invested enormous resources in their Sunday publications, which functioned like weekly magazines, going beyond the normal scope of daily journalism.

Their Sunday entertainment features included the first color comic strip pages, and some theorize that the term yellow journalism originated

大都会报纸在 19 世纪 90 年代开始追踪百货商店广告，发现流通基数越大越好。这开车了赫斯特;按照普利策的早期策略，他将期刊的价格保持在 1 美分（与世界的 2 美分价格相比），同时提供与竞争对手报纸一样多的信息。这种做法奏效了，随着"华尔街日报"的发行量跃升至 15 万，普利策将价格降到了一分钱，希望能让他年轻的竞争对手破产。

在一次反击中，赫斯特在 1896 年袭击了世界的工作人员。虽然大多数消息来源说赫斯特只是提供了更多的钱，普利策对他的员工越来越多的辱骂，已成为一个非常难以为之工作的人，以及许多世界员工他们愿意抓住机会远离他。

尽管世界与日报之间的竞争非常激烈，但论文的情节却相似。两位支持民主党的人都同情劳工和移民，他们都在周日出版物上投入了大量资源，这些出版物就像每周杂志一样，超出了日常新闻的正常范围。

他们的周日娱乐功能包括第一个彩色漫画页面，以及黄色新闻一词起源于那里的一些理论。 Hogan's Alley,

there. Hogan's Alley, a comic strip revolving around a bald child in a yellow nightshirt, nicknamed The Yellow Kid, became exceptionally popular when cartoonist Richard F. Outcault began drawing it in the World in early 1896. When Hearst predictably hired Outcault away, Pulitzer asked artist George Luks to continue the strip with his characters, giving the city two Yellow Kids. The use of yellow journalism as a synonym for over-the-top sensationalism apparently started with more serious newspapers commenting on the excesses of "the Yellow Kid papers."

Perhaps ironically, the **Pulitzer Prize**, which was established by Pulitzer in his will, is awarded every year to recognize outstanding journalism in such categories as Breaking News, Investigative Reporting, and Editorial Cartoons.

MUCKRAKERS

Journalists at the turn of the century were powerful. The print revolution enabled publications to increase their subscriptions dramatically. Writing to Congress in hopes of correcting abuses was slow and rarely produced results. Publishing a series of articles had a much more immediate impact. Collectively called **muckrakers**, a brave cadre of reporters exposed injustices so grave they made the blood of the average American run cold.

The first to strike was **Lincoln Steffens**. In 1902, he published an article in McClure's magazine called "Tweed Days in St. Louis." Steffens exposed how city officials used the city's public tax dollars to make deals with big business in order to maintain power. More articles followed, and soon Steffens published the collection as a book entitled **The Shame of the Cities**. Public outcry from outraged readers led to reform of city government and gave strength to the progressive ideas of a city commission or city manager system.

Ida Tarbell struck next. One month after Lincoln Steffens launched his assault on urban politics, Tarbell began her McClure's series entitled "History of the Standard Oil Company." She outlined and documented the cutthroat business practices behind John Rockefeller's meteoric rise. Tarbell's motives may also have been personal. Her own father had been driven out of business by Rockefeller.

John Spargo's 1906 "The Bitter Cry of the Children" exposed hardships suffered by child laborers, such as these coal miners. "From the cramped position [the boys] have to assume," wrote Spargo, "most of them become more or less deformed and bent-backed like old men…"

Once other publications saw how profitable these exposés had been, they courted muckrakers of their own. In 1905, Thomas Lawson brought the inner workings of the stock market to light in "Frenzied Finance." John Spargo unearthed the horrors of child labor in "The Bitter Cry of the Children" in 1906. That same year, David Phillips linked 75 senators to

一个围着一个穿着黄色睡衣的秃头孩子的漫画，绰号"黄孩子"，当漫画家 Richard F.Outcault 于 1896 年初开始在世界上画它时变得非常受欢迎。当 Hearst 可以预见雇用 Outcault 时，普利策要求艺术家乔治卢克斯继续与他的角色脱衣舞，给这个城市两个黄孩子。使用黄色新闻作为过度轰动主义的代名词显然是从更严肃的报纸开始评论"黄孩子论文"的过度。

也许具有讽刺意味的是，由普利策在其遗嘱中建立的普利策奖每年颁发一次，以表彰突发新闻，调查报道和编辑漫画等杰出新闻。

丑闻揭发者

世纪之交的记者是强大的。印刷革命使出版物大大增加了订阅量。写给国会希望纠正滥用行为是缓慢的，很少产生结果。发布一系列文章会产生更直接的影响。统称为诽谤者，一位勇敢的记者干部暴露了不公正，他们让普通美国人的血液变得冷酷无情。

第一次罢工是林肯斯蒂芬斯。 1902 年，他在麦克卢尔的杂志上发表了一篇名为"圣路易斯的特威日"的文章。斯蒂芬斯揭露了城市官员如何利用该市的公共税收资金与大企业达成交易以维持权力。接下来是更多的文章，很快 Steffens 就将这本系列作为一本名为"城市的耻辱"的书出版。来自愤怒的读者的公众强烈抗议导致了城市政府的改革，并为城市委员会或城市管理者系统的进步思想提供了力量。

Ida Tarbell 接下来打了个响。在林肯斯蒂芬斯发起对城市政治的攻击一个月后，塔贝尔开始了她的 McClure 系列题为"标准石油公司的历史"。她概述并记录了约翰洛克菲勒迅速崛起背后的残酷商业行为。塔贝尔的动机也可能是个人的。她自己的父亲被洛克菲勒赶下了生意。

约翰斯帕戈（John Spargo）1906 年的"儿童的苦涩的哭泣"揭露了童工（如这些煤矿工人）所遭受的苦难。"从男孩们不得不承担的狭窄位置，"斯帕戈写道，"他们中的大多数变得或多或少变形，像老人一样弯腰……"

一旦其他出版物看到这些曝光有多么有利可图，他们就会向自己的诽谤者求助。 1905 年，托马斯·劳森（Thomas Lawson） 在"疯狂财务"（Frenzied Finance）中揭示了股票市场的内部运作。约翰·斯帕戈

big business interests in "The Treason of the Senate." In 1907, William Hard went public with industrial accidents in the steel industry in the blistering "Making Steel and Killing Men." Ray Stannard Baker revealed the oppression of Southern blacks in "Following the Color Line" in 1908.

(John Spargo) 在 1906 年的"儿童的苦涩的哭泣"中挖掘了童工的恐怖。同年，大卫菲利普斯将 75 名参议员联系起来。参与"参议院的叛国罪"中的大企业利益。1907 年，威廉·哈德在钢铁行业的工业事故中公开抨击"制造钢铁和杀人"。雷·斯坦纳德·贝克透露了南方黑人在"追随者"中的压迫 1908 年的"色线"。

Primary Source: Photograph

One of the many photographs taken by Jacob Riis in the slums of New York City. Photographs like this one of three homeless boys helped foster sympathy among middle and upper class Americans an foster the progressive agenda to address the problems faced by the urban poor.

主要来源：照片

Jacob Riis 在纽约市贫民窟拍摄的众多照片之一。 像这样的照片中的三个无家可归的男孩之一帮助培养了中产阶级和上层阶级的美国人的同情心，并促进了解决城市贫困人口面临的问题的进步议程。

Jacob Riis was a Danish immigrant who moved to New York, and after experiencing poverty and joblessness first-hand, ultimately built a career as a police reporter. In the course of his work, he spent much of his time in the slums and tenements of New York's working poor. Appalled by what he found there, Riis began documenting these scenes of squalor and sharing them through lectures and ultimately through the publication of his book, **How the Other Half Lives**, in 1890.

Jacob Riis 是一名移居纽约的丹麦移民，在经历了贫困和失业后，他最终成为了一名警察记者。在他的工作过程中，他大部分时间都在纽约贫困地区的贫民窟和矿权地里度过。对于他在那里发现的东西感到震惊，Riis 开始记录这些肮脏的场景并通过讲座分享它们，并最终通过 1890 年出版的他的书"如何生下半生"。

By most contemporary accounts, Riis was an effective storyteller, using drama and racial stereotypes to tell his stories of the ethnic slums he encountered. While his racial thinking was very much a product of his time, he was also a reformer. He felt strongly that upper and middle-class Americans could and should care about the living conditions of the poor. In his book and lectures, he argued against the immoral landlords and useless laws that allowed dangerous living conditions and high rents. He also suggested remodeling existing tenements or building new ones. While other reporters and activists had already brought the issue into the public eye, Riis's photographs added a new element to the story.

根据大多数当代人的说法，里斯是一个有效的讲故事者，用戏剧和种族刻板印象来讲述他遇到的种族贫民窟的故事。虽然他的种族思想非常适合他的时代，但他也是一名改革者。他强烈认为美国中产阶级和中产阶级能够而且应该关心穷人的生活条件。在他的书和讲座中，他反对不道德的地主和无用的法律，允许危险的生活条件和高租金。他还建议改造现有的物业单位或建造新的物业单位。虽然其他记者和活动家已经将这个问题引入公众视线，但 Riis 的照片为这个故事添加了一个新元素。

Perhaps no muckraker caused as great a stir as **Upton Sinclair**. An avowed Socialist, Sinclair hoped to illustrate the horrible effects of

也许没有任何捣蛋鬼像厄普顿辛克莱那样引起轰动。一位公认的社会主义者，辛克莱希望说明资本主义对芝加

capitalism on workers in the Chicago meatpacking industry. His bone-chilling account, **The Jungle**, detailed workers sacrificing their fingers and nails by working with acid, losing limbs, catching diseases, and toiling long hours in cold, cramped conditions. He hoped the public outcry would be so fierce that reforms would soon follow.

The clamor that rang throughout America was not, however, a response to the workers' plight. Sinclair also uncovered the contents of the products being sold to the general public. Spoiled meat was covered with chemicals to hide the smell. Skin, hair, stomach, ears, and nose were ground up and packaged as head cheese. Rats climbed over warehouse meat, leaving piles of excrement behind.

Sinclair said that he aimed for America's heart and instead hit its stomach. Even President Roosevelt, who had coined the derisive term muckraker, was propelled to act. Within months, Congress passed the **Pure Food and Drug Act** and the **Meat Inspection Act** to curb these sickening abuses. Today, the **Food and Drug Administration** within the Department of Health and Human Services is responsible for monitoring the nation's food and pharmaceutical supply in order to prevent the problems Sinclair so grotesquely chronicled.

MAGAZINES

Along with newspapers and books, magazines provided Americans with news, information and commentary.

The weekly magazine **Puck** was founded by Joseph Keppler in St. Louis. It began publishing English and German language editions in March 1871. Five years later, the German edition of Puck moved to New York City, where the first magazine was published in 1876. The English language edition soon followed. The English language magazine continued in operation for more than 40 years under several owners and editors. A typical 32-page issue contained a full-color political cartoon on the front cover and a color non-political cartoon or comic strip on the back cover. There was always a double-page color centerfold, usually on a political topic. Each issue also included numerous black-and-white cartoons used to illustrate humorous anecdotes. A page of editorials commented on the issues of the day, and the last few pages were devoted to advertisements.

Founded by S. S. McClure and John Sanborn Phillips in 1893, **McClure's** magazine featured both political and literary content, publishing serialized novels-in-progress, a chapter at a time. In this way, McClure's published such writers as Willa Cather, Arthur Conan Doyle, Herminie T. Kavanagh, Rudyard Kipling, Jack London, Lincoln Steffens, Robert Louis Stevenson, and Mark Twain. McClure's published Ida Tarbell's series in 1902 exposing the monopoly abuses of John D. Rockefeller's Standard Oil Company, and Ray Stannard Baker's earlier look at the United States Steel Corporations. From January 1907 to June 1908, McClure's

哥肉类加工业工人的可怕影响。他的骨头寒冷的帐户，丛林，详细的工作人员通过与酸，失去四肢，捕捉疾病，以及在寒冷，狭窄的条件下长时间劳作来牺牲他们的手指和指甲。他希望公众的抗议能够如此激烈，以至于很快就会进行改革。

然而，在整个美国响起的喧嚣并不是对工人困境的回应。辛克莱还发现了向公众出售的产品的内容。被宠坏的肉上覆盖着化学物质以掩盖气味。将皮肤，头发，胃，耳朵和鼻子磨碎并包装成头奶酪。老鼠爬过仓库肉，留下一堆排泄物。

辛克莱说他瞄准了美国的心脏，而是扼杀了它的胃。甚至连罗斯福总统创造这个嘲弄的术语"捣蛋鬼"，也被推动行动起来。几个月后，国会通过了"纯食品和药品法"和"肉类检验法"，以遏制这些令人作呕的滥用行为。今天，卫生和公共服务部内的食品和药物管理局负责监测国家的食品和药品供应，以防止辛克莱如此奇怪地记录下来的问题。

杂志

除了报纸和书籍，杂志还为美国人提供新闻，信息和评论。

每周杂志 Puck 由 Joseph Keppler 在圣路易斯创立。它于 1871 年 3 月开始出版英语和德语版本。五年后，德国版 Puck 搬到了纽约市，第一本杂志于 1876 年出版。随后出版了英文版。这本英文杂志在几位业主和编辑的指导下继续运作了 40 多年。一个典型的 32 页问题封面上有一张全彩政治漫画，封底上有彩色非政治漫画或漫画。总是有一个双页彩色中心折叠，通常是一个政治话题。每个问题还包括许多用于说明幽默轶事的黑白漫画。一篇社论评论当天的问题，最后几页专门讨论广告。

McClure 的杂志由 S. S. McClure 和 John Sanborn Phillips 于 1893 年创立，其中包括政治和文学内容，出版正在进行的连载小说，一次一章。通过这种方式，麦克卢尔出版了诸如 Willa Cather，Arthur Conan Doyle，Herminie T. Kavanagh，Rudyard Kipling，Jack London，Lincoln Steffens，Robert Louis Stevenson 和 Mark Twain 等作家。麦克卢尔于 1902 年出版了 Ida Tarbell 的系列文章，揭露了约翰·D·洛克菲勒标准石油公司的垄断滥用行为，以及雷·斯坦纳德·贝克早前对美

published the first detailed history of Christian Science and the story of its founder, Mary Baker Eddy.

国钢铁公司的看法。从 1907 年 1 月到 1908 年 6 月，麦克卢尔出版了基督教科学的第一部详细历史及其创始人玛丽贝克艾迪的故事。

Primary Source: Magazine Cover

The Saturday Evening Post was known for featuring illustrated covers highlighting everyday life.

主要来源：杂志封面

星期六晚邮报以展示日常生活的插图封面而闻名。

Collier's was another magazine of the time that featured both muckraking journalism and outstanding literary content. In May 1906, the editors commissioned Jack London to cover the San Francisco earthquake, a report accompanied by 16 pages of pictures. Collier's published the work of investigative journalists such as Samuel Hopkins Adams, Ray Stannard Baker, C.P. Connolly, Upton Sinclair and Ida Tarbell. The work of the writers and editors at Collier's helped pass reform of child labor laws, slum clearance, food safety and women's suffrage. Starting October 7, 1905, Collier's startled readers with "The Great American Fraud," analyzing the contents of popular patent medicines.

科利尔是当时的另一本杂志，其中包括黑客新闻和杰出的文学内容。 1906 年 5 月，编辑委托杰克伦敦报道旧金山地震，这份报告附有 16 页的照片。科利尔发表了调查性记者的工作，如塞缪尔霍普金斯亚当斯，雷斯坦纳德贝克，C.P。 Connolly，Upton Sinclair 和 Ida Tarbell。科利尔的作家和编辑的工作帮助改革了童工法，贫民窟清洁，食品安全和妇女选举权。从 1905 年 10 月 7 日开始，科利尔以"美国大骗局"（The Great

The author, Samuel Hopkins Adams, pointed out that the companies producing many of the nation's medicines were making false claims about their products and some were health hazards.

The Saturday Evening Post was founded in 1821 and grew to become the most widely circulated weekly magazine in America. Like its competitors, the magazine published current event articles, editorials, human interest pieces, humor, illustrations, a letter column, poetry and stories by the leading writers of the time. It was known for commissioning lavish illustrations and original works of fiction. Illustrations were featured on the cover and embedded in stories and advertising. Some Post illustrations became popular and continue to be reproduced as posters or prints, especially those by Norman Rockwell. The Post published stories and essays by Ray Bradbury, Agatha Christie, William Faulkner, F. Scott Fitzgerald, Vonnegut, Louis L'Amour, Sinclair Lewis, Edgar Allan Poe, and John Steinbeck. It also published poetry by such noted poets as Carl Sandburg, Ogden Nash, Dorothy Parker and Hannah Kahn. Jack London's best-known novel The Call of the Wild was first published, in serialized form, in the Saturday Evening Post in 1903.

Weekly magazines such as Puck, McClures, Collier's and The Saturday Evening Post flourished at the turn of the century, and for nearly half a century. It was not until the 1950s when they lost popularity as Americans turned to a new form of entertainment: television.

CONCLUSION

The printed word in the Gilded Age captured the imagination of America. Sometimes it made us cry, or laugh, or become outraged. But whatever the effect, the editors, illustrators, investigators, and authors of the Gilded Age made a difference. They brought down corrupt politicians and exposed crooked businessmen. They gave us some of America's great literature.

On the other hand, incendiary headlines fanned war-fever and exaggerated truths in the pursuit of profits.

What do you think? Can writers make the world a better place?

American Fraud）震惊读者，分析了流行专利药的内容。作者，Samue

星期六晚邮报成立于1821年，后来成为美国发行量最大的周刊。与其竞争对手一样，该杂志发表了当时主要作家的当前活动文章，社论，人文兴趣，幽默，插图，文字专栏，诗歌和故事。它以调试奢华插图和原创小说作品而闻名。插图以封面为特色，并嵌入故事和广告中。一些 Post 插图变得流行并继续被复制为海报或版画，尤其是 Norman Rockwell 的插图。The Post 发表了 Ray Bradbury，Agatha Christie，William Faulkner，F。Scott Fitzgerald，Vonnegut，Louis L'Amour，Sinclair Lewis，Edgar Allan Poe 和 John Steinbeck 的故事和文章。它还出版了着名诗人卡尔·桑德伯格，奥格登·纳什，多萝西·帕克和汉娜·卡恩的诗歌。杰克伦敦最着名的小说"野性的呼唤"于 1903 年在"星期六晚邮报"上以序列形式首次出版。

Puck，McClures，Collier 和 The Saturday Evening Post 等周刊在世纪之交蓬勃发展，近半个世纪。直到 20 世纪 50 年代，当美国人转向一种新的娱乐形式时，他们失去了知名度：电视。

结论

镀金时代的印刷文字俘获了美国的想象力。有时它会让我们哭泣，或笑，或变得愤怒。但无论效果如何，编辑，插图画家，调查人员和镀金时代的作者都有所作为。他们挫败了腐败的政治家，暴露了歪曲的商人。他们给了我们一些美国伟大的文学作品。

另一方面，煽动性的头条新闻煽动了战争狂热和追求利润的夸大事实。

你怎么看？作家能让世界变得更美好吗？

SUMMARY

The beginning of the 1900s was a time of growth in the print industry. Before the Internet, radio or television, most people got their news from newspapers, and even small cities had multiple newspapers that were printed twice a day. Two great publishers, Pulitzer and Hearst competed for subscribers and developed a style of sensational journalism that exaggerated the truth and used flashy headlines to catcher potential readers' attention. Called Yellow Journalism, it was both good and bad.

The Yellow Journalists loved publishing stories that exposed wrongdoing by politicians and business leaders. These muckrakers did America a great service by showing the wrongs of city life, the meat packing industry, robber baron practices, and government corruption. Some of their work led directly to changes in laws that made American better. The best-known example is the connection between Upton Sinclair's The Jungle and the passage of the Meat Inspection and Pure Food and Drug Acts.

This was a time period of growth in magazines as well. Weekly publications such as Puck, McLure's, Collier's, and the Saturday Evening Post grew in popularity and remained a staple of American life until after World War II when television replaced reading as a favored pastime.

摘要

20 世纪初是印刷业发展的时期。在互联网，广播或电视之前，大多数人都从报纸上获取新闻，甚至小城市也有多份报纸每天都要打印两次。两位出色的出版商，普利策和赫斯特竞争订阅者，并开发了一种耸人听闻的新闻风格，夸大了事实，并使用华丽的头条新闻吸引潜在读者的注意力。被称为黄色新闻，它既好又坏。

黄色记者喜欢发布暴露政治家和商业领袖不道德行为的故事。这些诽谤者通过展示城市生活，肉类包装行业，强盗男爵行为和政府腐败的错误，为美国提供了很好的服务。他们的一些工作直接导致法律的变化，使美国变得更好。最着名的例子是厄普顿辛克莱的丛林与肉类检验和纯食品和药物法案之间的联系。

这也是杂志增长的时期。每周出版物如 Puck，McLure's，Collier's 和 Saturday Evening Post 越来越受欢迎，直到第二次世界大战后电视取代阅读作为一种受欢迎的消遣时，它仍然是美国生活的主要内容。

KEY CONCEPTS

Human Interest Story: A type of news story that focused on emotional stories rather than breaking news.

Yellow Journalism: A style of newspaper writing pioneered by Joseph Pulitzer and William Randolph Hearst at the turn of the century featuring bold headlines, images and sensational stories designed to capture readers' attention and sell papers. This style is generally credited with inflaming public opinion in the lead up to the Spanish-American War.

Pulitzer Prize: An annual award for excellence in journalism, ironically named after one of the trade's most notorious promoters of the yellow press.

BOOKS & MAGAZINES

The Shame of the Cities: Lincoln Steffens' book about corruption in major American cities at the turn of the century.

How the Other Half Lives: Jacob Riis's book of photographs about life in city slums at the turn of the century.

The Jungle: Upton Sinclair's book about working and sanitary conditions in meat packing plants in Chicago at the turn of the century.

Puck: Weekly magazine popular at the turn of the century. It was originally published in St. Louis in German.

McClure's: Weekly magazine popular at the turn of the century that featured literature by famous authors and ran the work of muckrakers including Ida Tarbell's expose of Standard Oil.

Collier's: Weekly magazine popular at the turn of the century. It ran numerous stories by muckrakers including The Great American Fraud which exposed abuses in the pharmaceutical industry.

The Saturday Evening Post: Weekly magazine popular at the turn of the century and well into the 1950s. It featured paintings on the cover depicting scenes of daily life, most notably by the artist Norman Rockwell.

PEOPLE AND GROUPS

Journalist: A person who researches, interviews and then writes stories for newspapers, magazines, radio, television, or online publications.

Dorothea Dix: Turn of the century social reformer and journalist. She invented the advice column for newspapers.

Joseph Pulitzer: American newspaper publisher who helped pioneer the style of yellow journalism. His primary rival was William Randolph Hearst.

William Randolph Hearst: American newspaper publisher who helped pioneer the style of yellow journalism. His primary rival was Joseph Pulitzer.

Muckraker: A journalist at the turn of the century who research and published stories and books uncovering political or business scandal. The term was coined by President Theodore Roosevelt.

Lincoln Steffens: Muckraker and author of The Same of the Cities about corruption in city governments.

Ida Tarbell: Muckraker and author of a tell-all book about John D. Rockefeller and the rise of Standard Oil.

Jacob Riis: Muckraker, photographer and author of the book How the Other Half Lives about the life in city slums.

Nellie Bly: Muckraker who wrote about corruption in New York government and business and traveled around the world in 72 days.

Upton Sinclair: Muckraker and author of The Jungle about working and sanitary conditions in meat packing plants in Chicago at the turn of the century.

GOVERNMENT AGNECIES

Food and Drug Administration: Organization in the federal government charged with monitoring the food and pharmaceutical industries.

TECHNOLOGY

Linotype Machine: An 1883 invention that allowed for fast printing of newspapers. It helped lead to a boom in newspaper publishing at the turn of the century.

LAWS

Pure Food and Drug Act: Law passed in 1906 providing public inspection of food and pharmaceutical production. It was inspired in part by Upton Sinclair's book The Jungle.

Meat Inspection Act: Law passed in 1906 providing regulation of the meat industry. It was inspired in part by Upton Sinclair's book The Jungle.

INTRODUCTION

As you probably have already come to understand, the Gilded Age was a time of extremes. On one hand, there were some Americans who through their ingenuity and determination, and probably a fair amount of luck, became fabulously rich. On the other hand, there were so many more who struggled everyday to earn enough to feed their families. Americans were farmers, but were quickly becoming city dwellers.

Amid all this change, reformers worked to improve the lives of those around them. Like the muckrakers, or the Progressive Presidents, many everyday Americans worked in thousands of small ways to make America a better place.

Some worked to improve the lives of farmers, or laborers, or children, or immigrants. Some wanted political change. Others just wanted to help a fellow citizens find a job.

The people who worked to make that change were known as the Progressives. What do you think? What does it mean to be progressive?

介绍

正如你可能已经明白的那样，镀金时代是一个极端的时代。一方面，有些美国人通过他们的聪明才智和决心，可能还有相当多的运气，变得非常富有。另一方面，还有更多的人每天都在努力赚取足够的钱养家糊口。美国人是农民，但很快成为城市居民。

在所有这些变化中，改革者努力改善周围人的生活。像诽谤者或进步总统一样，许多美国人每天都在成千上万的小方法中工作，使美国变得更加美好。

有些人致力于改善农民，劳动者，儿童或移民的生活。有些人想要政治改变。其他人只是想帮助同胞找到工作。

致力于改变的人被称为进步者。你怎么看？进步是什么意思？

THE POPULISTS

人口

Like the oppressed laboring classes of the East, it was only a matter of time before Western farmers would attempt to use their numbers to effect positive change. In 1867, the first such national organization was formed. Led by Oliver Kelley, the **Patrons of Husbandry**, also known as the **Grange**, organized to address the social isolation of farm life. Like other secret societies, such as the Masons, Grangers had local chapters with secret passwords and rituals.

就像东方受压迫的劳动阶级一样，西方农民试图利用他们的数字来实现积极变革只是时间问题。 1867 年，第一个这样的国家组织成立。在奥利弗·凯利（Oliver Kelley）的带领下，畜牧业的顾客，也被称为格兰奇（Grange），旨在解决农村生活的社会孤立问题。像其他秘密社团一样，例如梅森人，格兰杰在当地的章节中都有秘密密码和仪式。

The local Grange sponsored dances and gatherings to attack the doldrums of daily life. It was only natural that politics and economics were discussed in these settings, and the Grangers soon realized that their individual problems were common.

当地的格兰奇赞助舞蹈和聚会来攻击日常生活的低迷。在这些环境中讨论政治和经济学是很自然的，而 Grangers 很快意识到他们的个人问题很常见。

Identifying the railroads as the chief villains, Grangers lobbied state legislatures for regulation of the industry. By 1874, several states passed the Granger laws, establishing maximum shipping rates. Grangers also pooled their resources to buy grain elevators of their own so that members could enjoy a break on grain storage.

鉴于铁路是主要的恶棍，格兰杰游说州立法机构监管该行业。到 1874 年，几个州通过了格兰杰法律，确定了最高运费。格兰杰还汇集资源购买自己的谷物升降机，以便会员可以享受谷物储存的休息。

Farmers' alliances went a step further. Beginning in 1889, Northern and Southern Farmers' Alliances championed the same issues as the Grangers, but also entered the political arena. Members of these alliances won seats in state legislatures across the Great Plains to strengthen the agrarian voice in politics.

农民的联盟更进了一步。从 1889 年开始，北方和南方农民联盟支持与格兰杰相同的问题，但也进入了政治舞台。这些联盟的成员赢得了大平原州立法机构的席位，以加强政治上的农业声音。

What did all the farmers seem to have in common? The answer was simple: debt. Looking for solutions to this condition, farmers began to attack the nation's monetary system. As of 1873, Congress declared that all federal money must be backed by gold. This limited the nation's money supply and benefited the wealthy.

所有农民似乎有什么共同之处？答案很简单：债务。寻找这种情况的解决方案，农民开始攻击国家的货币体系。截至 1873 年，国会宣布所有联邦资金必须以黄金为后盾。这限制了国家的货币供应并使富人受益。

The farmers wanted to create inflation. Inflation actually helps debtors. The economics are simple. If a farmer owes $3,000 and can earn $1 for every bushel of wheat sold at harvest, he needs to sell 3,000 bushels to pay off the debt. If inflation could push the price of a bushel of wheat up to $3, he needs to sell only 1,000 bushels. Of course, inflation is bad for the bankers who made the loans.

农民想要制造通货膨胀。通货膨胀实际上有助于债务人。经济学很简单。如果一个农民欠 3000 美元并且在收获时卖出的每一蒲式耳小麦可以赚 1 美元，他需要卖出 3,000 蒲式耳以偿还债务。如果通货膨胀可能将一蒲式耳小麦的价格推高至 3 美元，他只需卖出 1,000 蒲式耳。当然，通货膨胀对提供贷款的银行家来说是不利的。

To create inflation, farmers suggested that the money supply be expanded to include dollars not backed by gold. First, farmers attempted was to encourage Congress to print Greenback Dollars like the ones issued during the Civil War. Since the greenbacks were not backed by gold, more dollars could be printed, creating an inflationary effect.

为了创造通货膨胀，农民建议将货币供应量扩大到包括没有黄金支持的美元。首先，农民企图鼓励国会像内战期间发布的那样印刷绿背美元。由于美元没有黄金支持，因此可以印刷更多美元，从而产生通胀效应。

The Greenback Party and the Greenback-Labor Party each ran candidates for President in 1876, 1880, and 1884 under this platform. No candidate was able to muster national support for the idea, and farmers turned to another strategy.

美元党和绿背党在 1876 年，1880 年和 1884 年分别在这个平台上竞选总统候选人。没有候选人能够获得国家对该想法的支持，农民转向另一种策略。

Inflation could also be created by printing money that was backed by silver as well as gold. This idea was more popular because people were more confident in their money if they knew it was backed by a precious metal. Also, America had coined money backed by silver until 1873.

Out of the ashes of the Greenback-Labor Party grew the **Populist Party**. In addition to demanding the **free coinage of silver**, the Populists called for a host of other reforms. They demanded a **graduated income tax**, whereby individuals earning a higher income paid a higher percentage in taxes.

They wanted Constitutional reforms as well. Up until this point, Senators were still not elected by the people directly. They were chosen by state legislatures. The Populists demanded a constitutional amendment allowing for the direct election of Senators.

They demanded democratic reforms such as the **initiative**, where citizens could directly introduce debate on a topic in the legislatures. The **referendum** would allow citizens, rather than their representatives, to vote a proposed law. **Recall** would allow the people to end an elected official's term before it expired. They also called for the secret ballot and a one-term limit for the president.

In 1892, the Populists ran James Weaver for president on this ambitious platform. He poled over a million popular votes and 22 electoral votes. Although he came far short of victory, Populist ideas gained traction at the national level. When the financial Panic of 1893 hit the following year, an increased number of unemployed and dispossessed Americans gave momentum to the Populist movement. A great showdown was in place for 1896.

THE ELECTION OF 1896

All the elements for political success seemed to be falling into place for the Populists. James Weaver made an impressive showing in 1892, and Populist ideas were being discussed across the nation. The **Panic of 1893** was the worst financial crisis to date in American history. As the soup lines grew larger, so did voters' anger.

When **Jacob S. Coxey** of Ohio marched his 200 supporters, dubbed **Coxey's Army**, into the nation's capital to demand reforms in the spring of 1894, many thought a revolution was brewing. The climate seemed to ache for change. All that the Populists needed was a winning Presidential candidate in 1896.

通过印刷由白银和黄金支持的资金也可以创造通货膨胀。这个想法更受欢迎，因为人们对他们的钱更有信心，如果他们知道它是由贵金属支持的话。此外，美国在 1873 年之前创造了由白银支持的资金。

在绿背工党的灰烬中，民主党成长起来了。除了要求免费提供白银外，民粹主义者还要求进行一系列其他改革。他们要求缴纳所得税，即收入较高的个人缴纳的税率较高。

他们也希望进行宪法改革。到目前为止，参议员还没有直接由人民选出。他们是由州立法机构选出的。民粹主义者要求宪法修正案允许直接选举参议员。

他们要求民主改革，例如倡议，公民可以直接在立法机关中就一个议题进行辩论。公民投票将允许公民而不是他们的代表对拟议的法律进行投票。召回将允许人们在其到期之前结束当选官员的任期。他们还要求进行无记名投票和总统的一期限制。

1892 年，民粹主义者在这个雄心勃勃的平台上竞选詹姆斯·韦弗为总统。他列出了超过一百万的民众选票和 22 张选举人票。尽管他远未取得胜利，但民粹主义思想在国家层面上获得了很大的吸引力。当 1893 年的金融恐慌袭击次年时，越来越多的失业和无依无靠的美国人为民粹运动提供了动力。 1896 年有一场精彩的摊牌。

1896 年的选举

政治成功的所有因素似乎都落到了民粹主义者身上。詹姆斯韦弗在 1892 年做了令人印象深刻的表演，民粹主义思想正在全国范围内进行讨论。 1893 年的恐慌是美国历史上迄今为止最严重的金融危机。随着汤线越来越大，选民的愤怒也越来越大。

当俄亥俄州的雅各布·科克西（Jacob S. Coxey）将他的 200 名支持者（称为 Coxey 的军队）带入该国首都，要求在 1894 年春天进行改革时，许多人认为革命正在酝酿之中。气候似乎有助于改变。民粹主义者所需要的只是 1896 年赢得总统候选人。

Ironically, the person who defended the Populist platform that year came from the Democratic Party. **William Jennings Bryan** was the unlikely candidate. An attorney from Lincoln, Nebraska, Bryan's speaking skills were among the best of his generation. Known as the "Great Commoner," Bryan developed a reputation as defender of the farmer.

When Populist ideas began to spread, Democratic voters of the South and West gave enthusiastic endorsement. At the Chicago Democratic convention in 1896, Bryan delivered a speech that made his career. Demanding the free coinage of silver, Bryan shouted, "You shall not crucify mankind upon a **cross of gold**!" Thousands of delegates roared their approval, and at the age of thirty-six, the "Boy Orator" received the Democratic nomination.

Faced with a difficult choice between surrendering their identity and hurting their own cause, the Populist Party nominated Bryan as their candidate as well, effectively merging the Populist and Democratic Parties.

The Republican competitor was **William McKinley**, the governor of Ohio. He had the support of the moneyed eastern establishment. Behind the scenes, a wealthy Cleveland industrialist named Marc Hanna was determined to see McKinley elected. He, like many of his class, believed that the free coinage of silver would bring financial ruin to America, or at least financial ruin to the pocketbooks of the wealthy.

具有讽刺意味的是，当年为民粹党辩护的人来自民主党。 威廉詹宁斯布莱恩是不太可能的候选人。 林肯，内布拉斯加州的律师，布莱恩的演讲技巧是他那一代人中最好的。 布莱恩被称为"伟大的平民"，因此成为农民的捍卫者。

当民粹主义思想开始传播时，南方和西方的民主党选民给予了热烈的支持。在 1896 年的芝加哥民主党大会上，布莱恩发表了他的职业生涯演讲。布莱恩要求银币的自由造币，他喊道，"你不应该把人类钉在十字架上！"成千上万的代表大吼大叫，三十六岁时，"男孩演说家"获得民主党提名。

面对放弃自己的身份和伤害自己的事业之间的艰难抉择，民粹党提名布莱恩也是他们的候选人，有效地融合了民粹党和民主党。

共和党的竞争对手是俄亥俄州州长威廉麦金利。他得到了有钱的东部建立的支持。在幕后，一位名叫马克汉纳的富有克利夫兰实业家决心让麦金莱当选。他和他的许多班级一样，相信白银的自由造币会给美国带来财务上的毁灭，或至少给富人的钱包带来财务上的毁灭。

Using his vast resources and power, Hanna directed a campaign based on fear of a Bryan victory. McKinley campaigned from his home, leaving the politicking for the party hacks.   Bryan revolutionized campaign politics by launching a nationwide **whistle-stop** effort, making twenty to thirty speeches per day from the back of a train as it stopped in each town along a rail line.

凭借其丰富的资源和力量，汉娜根据对布莱恩胜利的恐惧指导了一场运动。麦金莱从他的家中竞选，留下了对党派黑客的政治斗争。布莱恩通过在全国范围内开展全国范围的举措来彻底改变竞选政策，每天从火车后面做二十到三十次演讲，因为它沿着铁路线停靠在每个城镇。

Primary Source: Photograph

William Jennings Bryan speaking during the Election of 1896. He was known as a dynamic speaker.

主要来源：照片

威廉詹宁斯布莱恩在 1896 年的选举中发言。他被称为一个充满活力的演说家。

When the results were finally tallied, McKinley beat Bryan by an electoral vote margin of 271 to 176. The popular vote was much closer. McKinley won 51% of the vote to Bryan's 47%.

当结果最终统计时，麦金莱以 271 比 176 的选举投票率击败布莱恩。民众投票更为接近。麦金莱赢得 51%的选票，布莱恩获得 47%的选票。

Many factors led to Bryan's defeat. He was unable to win a single state in the populous and industrial Northeast. Laborers feared the free silver idea as much as their bosses. While inflation would help the debt-ridden, mortgage-paying farmers, it could hurt the wage-earning, rent-paying factory workers. In a sense, the election came down to a clash between the interests of the city versus country and by 1896, the urban forces won. Bryan's campaign marked the last time a major party attempted to win the White House by exclusively courting the rural vote.

The economy in 1896 was also on the upswing. Had the election occurred in the heart of the Panic of 1893, the results may have been different. Farm prices were rising by 1896, albeit slowly and the Populist Party fell apart with Bryan's loss. Although they continued to nominate candidates, most of their membership reverted to the major parties.

The ideas, however, did endure. Although the free silver issue died, the graduated income tax, direct election of senators, initiative, referendum, recall, and the secret ballot were all later enacted. These issues were kept alive by the next standard bearers of reform, the Progressives.

THE PROGRESSIVES

The turn of the 20th Century was an age of reform. Urban reformers and Populists had already done much to raise attention to the nation's most pressing problems.

America in 1900 looked nothing like America in 1850, yet those in power seemed to be applying the same old strategies to complex new problems. The Populists had tried to effect change by capturing the presidency in 1896 but had failed.   The Progressives would succeed where the Populists could not.

The **Progressives** were urban, northeaster, educated, middle-class, Protestant reform-minded men and women. There was no official **Progressive Party** until 1912, but progressivism had already swept the nation.

It was more of a movement than a political party, and there were adherents to the philosophy in each major party. There were three progressive presidents: Theodore Roosevelt, William Howard Taft, and Woodrow Wilson. Roosevelt and Taft were Republicans and Wilson was a Democrat. What united the movement was a belief that the **laissez faire**, **Social Darwinist** outlook of the Gilded Age was morally and intellectually wrong. Progressives believed that people and government had the power to correct abuses produced by nature and the free market.

许多因素导致了布莱恩的失败。他无法在人口稠密的工业东北地区赢得一个州。劳工们担心自由银的想法和他们的老板一样多。虽然通货膨胀将有助于债务缠身的抵押贷款农民，但这可能会伤害工资收入，租金支付的工厂工人。从某种意义上说，选举归结为城市利益与国家之间的冲突，到 1896 年，城市部队获胜。布莱恩的竞选标志着一个主要政党最后一次试图通过专门征求农村投票来赢得白宫。

1896 年的经济也在上升。如果选举发生在 1893 年恐慌的核心，结果可能会有所不同。农产品价格在 1896 年上涨，尽管速度缓慢，民粹党因布莱恩的损失而崩溃。虽然他们继续提名候选人，但他们的大部分成员都归还主要政党。

然而，这些想法确实存在。尽管自由白银问题已经死亡，但所得税的逐步增加，参议员的直接选举，主动性，公投，召回和无记名投票都是后来颁布的。下一个标准的改革承担者，即进步者，这些问题一直存在。

进步

20 世纪的转折是一个改革的时代。城市改革者和民粹主义者已经做了很多工作来提高对国家最紧迫问题的关注。

1900 年的美国在 1850 年看起来与美国不同，但当权者似乎正在采用相同的旧策略来解决复杂的新问题。民粹主义者试图通过在 1896 年夺取总统职位来实现变革但却失败了。进步党将在民粹主义者无法成功的地方取得成功。

进步人士是城市，东北，受过教育，有中产阶级，新教改革思想的男女。直到 1912 年才有正式的进步党，但进步主义已经席卷全国。

它更像是一个运动而不是一个政党，并且在每个主要政党中都有对这一哲学的追随者。有三位进步总统：西奥多·罗斯福，威廉·霍华德·塔夫脱和伍德罗·威尔逊。罗斯福和塔夫脱是共和党人，威尔逊是民主党人。联合运动的一个信念是，自由放任，社会达尔文主义者对镀金时代的看法在道德和智力上是错误的。进步人士认为，人民和政府有权纠正自然和自由市场产生的侵权行为。

The results were astonishing. Seemingly every aspect of society was touched by progressive reform. Worker and consumer issues were addressed, conservation of natural resources was initiated, and the plight of the urban poor was confronted. National political movements such as temperance and women's suffrage found allies in the progressive movement. The era produced a host of national and state regulations, plus four amendments to the Constitution.

The single greatest factor that fueled the progressive movement in America was urbanization. For years, educated, middle-class women had begun the work of reform in the nation's cities.

Underlying this new era of reform was a fundamental shift in philosophy away from Social Darwinism. Why accept hardship and suffering as simply the result of natural selection? Humans can and have adapted their physical environments to suit their purposes. Individuals need not accept injustices as the law of nature if they can think of a better way. Philosopher William James called this new way of thinking, **pragmatism**. His followers came to believe that an activist government could be the agent of the public to pursue the betterment of social ills.

THE SOCIAL GOSPEL

Protestant churches during the Gilded Age were afraid of losing influence over changes in society. Although the population of America was growing rapidly, there were many empty seats in the pews of urban Protestant churches. Middle-class churchgoers were faithful, but large numbers of workers were starting to lose faith in their local churched. The old-style heaven and hell sermons seemed irrelevant to those who toiled long hours for inadequate pay.

Meanwhile, immigration swelled the ranks of Roman Catholic churches. Eastern Orthodox churches and Jewish synagogues were sprouting up everywhere. Many cities reported the loss of Protestant congregations.

Out of this concern grew the **Social Gospel Movement**. Progressive-minded preachers began to tie the teachings of Christianity with contemporary problems. Christian virtue, they declared, demanded a redress of poverty and despair on earth.

Many ministers became politically active. Washington Gladden, the most prominent of the social gospel ministers, supported the workers' right to strike in the wake of the Great Upheaval of 1877. Ministers called for an end to child labor, the enactment of temperance laws, and civil service reform. Liberal churches such as the Congregationalists and the Unitarians led the way, but the movement spread to many sects.

结果令人惊讶。看似渐进式改革触及了社会的各个方面。解决了工人和消费者问题,启动了自然资源保护,面临城市贫困人口的困境。节制和妇女选举权等国家政治运动在进步运动中找到了盟友。这个时代产生了许多国家和州的法规,加上宪法的四项修正案。

推动美国进步运动的最重要因素是城市化。多年来,受过教育的中产阶级妇女已经开始在国家城市进行改革。

这个改革新时代的基础是哲学从社会达尔文主义转向的根本转变。为什么接受困难和苦难只是自然选择的结果?人类可以并且已经适应了他们的物理环境以适应他们的目的。如果个人能够想出更好的方法,他们就不需要接受不公正作为自然法则。哲学家威廉詹姆斯称这种新的思维方式,实用主义。他的追随者开始相信,一个积极的政府可以成为公众的代理人,以追求改善社会弊病。

社会福音

镀金时代的新教教会害怕失去对社会变革的影响。虽然美国人口迅速增长,但在城市新教教堂的长椅上却有许多空座位。中产阶级的教徒是忠实的,但是大量的工人开始对他们当地的教堂失去信心。旧式的天堂和地狱布道似乎与长时间因工资不足而苦苦挣扎的人无关。

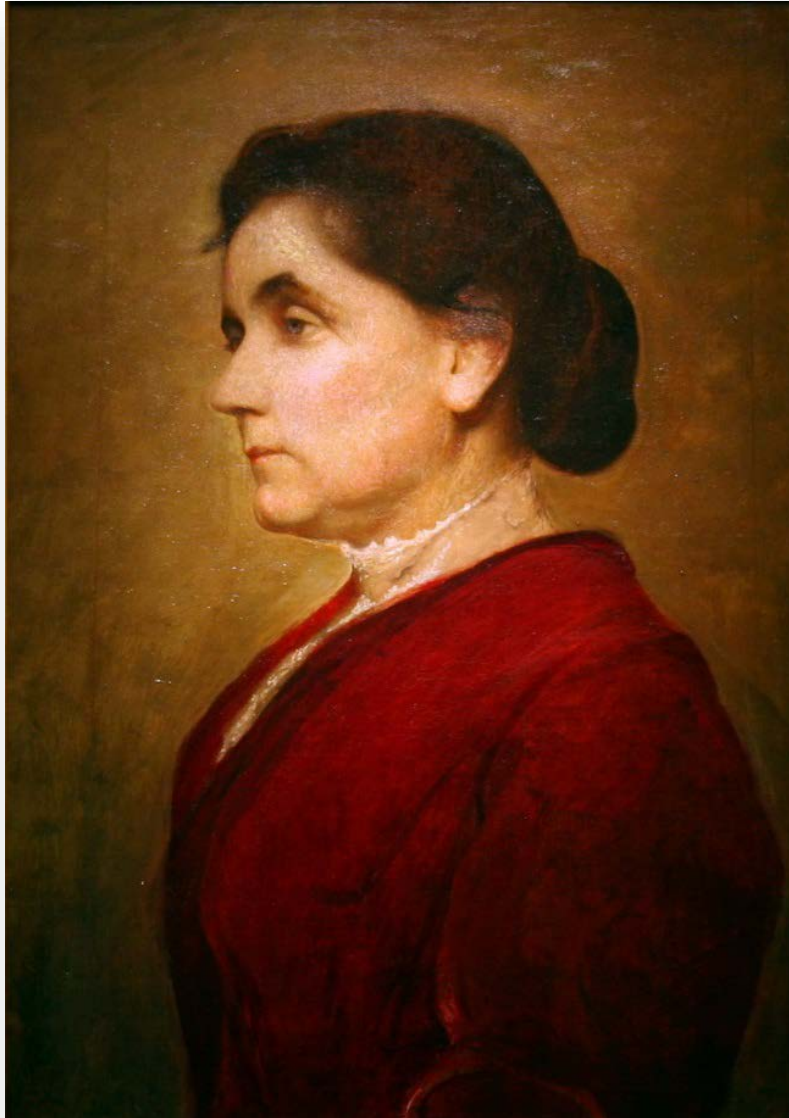与此同时,移民涌入罗马天主教教会的行列。东正教教堂和犹太教会堂到处都在萌芽。许多城市都报告了新教教会的失落。

出于这种担忧,社会福音运动得到了发展。具有进步思想的传教士开始将基督教的教义与当代问题联系起来。他们宣称,基督教的美德要求在地球上弥补贫困和绝望。

许多部长在政治上变得活跃。最重要的社会福音部长华盛顿格拉登支持工人在 1877 年大爆发之后的罢工权。部长们呼吁终止童工,制定节制法和公务员制度改革。诸如公理会和一神论者等自由教会一路领先,但这一运动传播到许多教派。

The **Young Men's Christian Association** (YMCA) and the **Young Women's Christian Association** (YWCA) were founded by Christian Progressives to address the challenges faced by urban youth.

青年基督教协会（YMCA）和青年妇女基督教协会（YWCA）由 Christian Progressives 成立，旨在解决城市青年面临的挑战。

Primary Source: Painting

A contemporary painting of Jane Addams who founded Hull House in Chicago and launched the Settlement House Movement.

主要来源：绘画

简·亚当斯（Jane Addams）的当代绘画，他在芝加哥创立了赫尔之家（Hull House）并发起了定居之家运动

Two new sects formed. Mary Baker Eddy founded the **Christian Science**, a new variation of Christianity whose followers tried to reconcile religion and science. She preached that faith was a means to cure evils such as disease. The **Salvation Army** crossed the Atlantic from England and provided free soup for the hungry. More of a service organization than a church, the Salvation Army remains a potent force for good in many American cities.

形成了两个新的教派。玛丽贝克艾迪创立了基督教科学，这是一种新的基督教变体，其追随者试图调和宗教和科学。她鼓吹信仰是治愈疾病等疾病的手段。救世军从英格兰越过大西洋，为饥饿者提供免费汤。救世军更像是一个服务组织，而不是一个教会，在许多美国城市仍然是一股强大的力量。

Middle class women who had time and financial resources became particularly active in the arena of progressive social reform. The Settlement House Movement spread across the country. Women organized and built **Settlement Houses** in urban centers where destitute immigrants could go when they had nowhere else to turn. Settlement houses provided family-style cooking, lessons in English, and tips on how to adapt to American culture.

拥有时间和财政资源的中产阶级妇女在进步社会改革领域变得特别活跃。定居点运动遍布全国各地。妇女在城市中心组织和建造定居点，贫困的移民可以在没有其他地方转向时去。定居点提供家庭式烹饪，英语课程以及如何适应美国文化的提示。

The first settlement house began in 1889 in Chicago and was called **Hull House**. Its organizer, **Jane Addams**, intended Hull House to serve as a prototype for other settlement houses. By 1900 there were nearly 100 settlement houses in the nation's cities. Jane Addams was considered the founder of social work, a new profession.

第一个定居点于 1889 年在芝加哥开始，被称为 Hull House。其组织者 Jane Addams 打算将 Hull House 作为其他定居点的原型。到1900 年，全国城市有近 100 个定居点。 Jane Addams 被认为是社会工作的创始人，一个新的职业。

The changes were profound. Many historians call this period in the history of American religion the **Third Great Awakening**. Like the first two awakenings, it was characterized by revival and reform. The temperance movement and the settlement house movement were both affected by church activism. The chief difference between this movement and those of an earlier era was location. These changes in religion transpired because of urban realities, underscoring the social impact of the new American city.

变化是深远的。许多历史学家称这一时期是美国宗教史上的第三次大觉醒。就像前两次觉醒一样，它的特点是复兴和改革。节制运动和定居点运动都受到教会活动的影响。这一运动与早期时代的主要区别在于地点。宗教的这些变化因城市现实而发生，凸显了新美国城市的社会影响。

Primary Source: Photograph

Horrific images from the Triangle Shirtwaist Fire such as this one were published around the nation and spurred workplace safety reforms.

主要来源：照片
来自 Triangle Shirtwaist Fire 的恐怖图像在全国各地发布，并促进了工作场所的安全改革。

THE TRIANGLE SHIRTWAIST FIRE

三角皮尔威火灾

The **Triangle Shirtwaist Factory fire** on March 25, 1911, was the deadliest industrial disaster in the history of New York City and resulted in the fourth-highest loss of life from an industrial accident in American history. The fire caused the deaths of 146 garment workers, who died from the fire, smoke inhalation, or falling or jumping to their deaths. Most of the victims were recent Jewish and Italian immigrant women aged 16 to 23. Of the victims

1911 年 3 月 25 日，Triangle Shirtwaist Factory 发生火灾，是纽约市历史上最致命的工业灾难，导致美国历史上工业事故造成的第四大生命损失。火灾导致 146 名服装工人死亡，他们死于火灾，烟雾吸入，或摔倒或跳楼死亡。大多数受害者是最近 16 至 23 岁的犹太和意大利移民妇女。在年龄已知的受害者中，年龄最大的受害者是 43 岁，最小的受害者只有 14 岁。

whose ages are known, the oldest victim was 43, and the youngest were just 14.

Because the managers had locked the doors to the stairwells and exits — a common practice at the time to prevent pilferage and unauthorized breaks — many of the workers who could not escape the burning building jumped to the streets below from the eighth, ninth, and tenth floors. The fire led to legislation requiring improved factory safety standards and helped spur the growth of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, which fought for better working conditions for sweatshop workers.

In New York City, a Committee on Public Safety was formed, headed by noted social worker Frances Perkins, to identify specific problems and lobby for new legislation. The subsequent reforms shortened work weeks, instituted mandatory fire escapes, and generally led to safer working conditions. Similar reforms were instituted all around the nation.

CHILD LABOR

One of the most important reforms of the Progressive Era was the elimination of child labor. After its conception in 1904, the **National Child Labor Committee** (NCLC) focused its attacks on child labor and endorsed the first national anti-child labor bill. Although the bill was defeated, it convinced many opponents of child labor that a solution lay in the cooperation and solidarity between the states.

The NCLC called for the establishment of a federal children's bureau that would investigate and report on the circumstances of all American children. In 1912, the NCLC succeeded in passing an act establishing a United States Children's Bureau in the Department of Commerce and Labor. On April 9, President William Taft signed the act into law. Over the next thirty years, the Children's Bureau would work closely with the NCLC to promote child labor reforms on both the state and national level.

In 1915, Pennsylvania Congressman A. Mitchell Palmer, who would go on to be Attorney General, introduced a bill to end child labor in most American mines and factories. President Wilson found it constitutionally unsound and after the House voted 232 to 44 in favor on February 15, 1915, he allowed it to die in the Senate. Nevertheless, Arthur Link has called it "a turning point in American constitutional history" because it attempted to establish for the first time "the use of the Commerce Clause commerce power to justify almost any form of federal control over working conditions and wages."

In 1916, Senator Robert L. Owen of Oklahoma and Representative Edward Keating of Colorado introduced the NCLC backed **Keating-Owen Act** which prohibited shipment in interstate commerce of goods manufactured or processed by child labor. The bill passed by a margin of 337 to 46 in the House and 50 to 12 in the Senate and was signed into

因为管理人员把门锁上了楼梯间和出口 - 这是当时防止盗窃和未经授权的休息的常见做法 - 许多无法逃离燃烧的建筑物的工人从第八，第九和第十位跳到下面的街道地板。火灾导致立法要求提高工厂安全标准，并有助于刺激国际女工服装工会的发展，为工作者提供更好的工作条件。

在纽约市，由着名社会工作者 Frances Perkins 领导的公共安全委员会成立，以确定具体问题并游说新立法。随后的改革缩短了工作周，实施了强制性的逃生，并且通常导致更安全的工作条件。在全国各地都进行了类似的改革。

童工

进步时代最重要的改革之一是消除童工。在 1904 年受孕之后，全国童工委员会（NCLC）将其攻击重点放在了童工上，并批准了第一个全国反童工法案。虽然该法案被否决，但它使许多反对童工的人相信，解决办法在于各州之间的合作和团结。

NCLC 呼吁建立一个联邦儿童局，负责调查和报告所有美国儿童的情况。 1912 年，NCLC 成功通过了在商业和劳工部设立美国儿童局的法案。 4 月 9 日，威廉塔夫脱总统将该法案签署为法律。在接下来的三十年中，儿童局将与 NCLC 密切合作，促进州和国家层面的童工改革。

1915 年，宾夕法尼亚州议员 A.米切尔帕尔默（他将继续担任司法部长）在大多数美国矿山和工厂中提出了终止童工的法案。威尔逊总统发现它在宪法上不健全，并且在众议院于 1915 年 2 月 15 日以 232 票对 44 票赞成后，他允许它在参议院死亡。然而，亚瑟·林克称其为"美国宪法史上的一个转折点"，因为它试图首次建立"利用商业条款商业权力来证明几乎任何形式的联邦控制工作条件和工资的理由"。

1916 年，俄克拉荷马州参议员 Robert L. Owen 和科罗拉多州代表 Edward Keating 介绍了 NCLC 支持的 Keating-Owen 法案，该法案禁止在州际贸易中运输由童工制造或加工的货物。该法案在众议院通过 337 至

law by President Woodrow Wilson. However, in 1918 the law was deemed unconstitutional by the Supreme Court in a five-to-four decision in Hammer v. Dagenhart. The court, while acknowledging child labor as a social evil, felt that the Keating-Owen Act overstepped congress' power to regulate trade.

46，参议院以 50 至 12 通过，并由伍德罗威尔逊总统签署成为法律。然而，在 1918 年，最高法院在 Hammer v.Dagenhart 的五至四决定中将该法律视为违宪。法院承认童工是一种社会罪恶，但认为"基廷 - 欧文法案"超越了国会调节贸易的权力。

Primary Source: Photograph

One of the iconic images from the Gilded Age, this photograph of a young girl working at the Lancaster Mills has come to symbolize the thousands of children who worked in factories around the turn of the century rather than attending school.

主要来源：照片

这张来自镀金时代的标志性图片之一，这张在兰开斯特米尔斯工作的年轻女孩的照片已经成为世纪之交在工厂工作而不是上学的数千名儿童的象征。

The NCLC then switched its strategy to passing of a federal constitutional amendment. In 1924 Congress passed the Child Labor Amendment, however, by 1932 only six states had voted for ratification while twenty-four had rejected the measure. Today, the amendment is technically still-pending and has been ratified by a total of twenty-eight states, requiring the ratification of ten more for its incorporation into the Constitution.

然后，NCLC 将其战略转变为通过联邦宪法修正案。1924 年国会通过了童工修正案，但到 1932 年，只有 6 个州投票赞成批准，而 24 个国家拒绝了该措施。今天，该修正案在技术上尚待审议，并已得到总共二十八个州的批准，要求批准另外十个国家将其纳入"宪法"。

In 1938, the National Child Labor Committee threw its support behind the **Fair Labor Standards Act** (FLSA) which included child labor provisions designed by the NCLC. The act prohibits any interstate commerce of goods produced through oppressive child labor. The act defines "oppressive child labor" as any form of employment for children under age sixteen and any particularly hazardous occupation for children ages sixteen to eighteen. This definition excludes agricultural labor and instances in which the child is employed by his or her guardians, such as in a family shop. On June 25, 1938, after the approval of Congress, President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed the bill into law; the FLSA remains the primary federal child labor law to this day. Students who want to work during the school year must first apply for a **work permit** from their school. Although they may see this as an inconvenience, it is in fact and important protection against the child labor abuses of the past.

1938 年，全国童工委员会支持公平劳工标准法案（FLSA），其中包括 NCLC 设计的童工条款。该法案禁止通过压迫性童工生产的商品进行州际贸易。该法案将"压迫性童工"定义为 16 岁以下儿童的任何形式的就业，以及 16 岁至 18 岁儿童的任何特别危险的职业。该定义不包括农业劳动力以及儿童由其监护人雇用的情况，例如家庭商店。1938 年 6 月 25 日，在国会批准后，总统富兰克林·罗斯福将该法案签署为法律; FLSA 至今仍是主要的联邦童工法。想要在学年期间工作的学生必须首先向学校申请工作许可。尽管他们可能认为这是一种不便，但实际上这是对过去虐待儿童工作的重要保护。

EDUCATION REFORM

教育改革

The Progressives embraced education reform. Employers wanted a better educated workforce to fill ever increasingly technical jobs. Classical liberals believed that public education was the cornerstone of any democracy. A government based on public participation would be imperiled if large numbers of uneducated masses voted unwisely.

进步人士接受了教育改革。雇主希望受过良好教育的劳动力能够填补日益增长的技术工作岗位。古典自由主义者认为公共教育是任何民主的基石。如果大量未受过教育的群众投票不明智，那么以公众参与为基础的政府将受到威胁。

Church leaders and modern liberals who were concerned for the welfare of children believed that a strong education was not only appropriate, but an inalienable right. Critics of child labor practices wanted longer mandatory school years. After all, if a child was in school, he or she would not be in the factory.

关注儿童福利的教会领袖和现代自由主义者认为，强有力的教育不仅是恰当的，而且是不可剥夺的权利。童工实践的批评者希望延长义务教育年限。毕竟，如果孩子在学校，他或她不会在工厂。

In 1870, about half of the nation's children received no formal education whatsoever. Although many states provided for a free public education for children between the ages of 5 and 21, economic realities kept many children working in mines, factories, or on the farm. Only six states had compulsory education laws at this point, and most were for only several weeks per year.

1870 年，全国约有一半的儿童没有受过任何正规教育。尽管许多州为 5 至 21 岁的儿童提供免费公共教育，但经济现实使许多儿童在矿山，工厂或农场工作。目前只有六个州有义务教育法，而且大多数国家每年只有几个星期。

Massachusetts was the leader in tightening laws. By 1890, all children in Massachusetts between the ages of 6 and 10 were required to attend school at least twenty weeks per year. These laws were much simpler to enact than to enforce. truant officers were necessary to chase down offenders. Private and religious schools had to be monitored to ensure quality standards similar to public schools. Despite resistance, acceptance of mandatory elementary education began to spread. By the turn of the century, such laws were universal throughout the North and West, with only the South lagging behind. There, under the laws of Jim Crow, the public schools in operation in the South were entirely segregated by race in 1900. Mississippi became the last state to require elementary education in 1918.

马萨诸塞州是收紧法律的领导者。到 1890 年，马萨诸塞州所有 6 至 10 岁的儿童每年至少要上学二十周。这些法律制定比执行要简单得多。逃学的人员有必要追捕违法者。必须对私立和宗教学校进行监测，以确保与公立学校类似的质量标准。尽管有抵抗，但强制性基础教育的接受开始蔓延。到世纪之交，这种法律在整个北方和西方普遍存在，只有南方落后。在那里，根据吉姆·克劳的法律，1900 年在南方运营的公立学校完全被种族隔离。密西西比州成为 1918 年最后一个要求接受基础教育的州。

Other reforms began to sweep the nation. Influenced by German immigrants, kindergartens sprouted in urban areas, beginning with St. Louis in 1873.

其他改革开始席卷全国。受德国移民的影响，幼儿园在 1873 年从圣路易斯开始在城市地区萌芽。

The most famous reformer of the time was **John Dewey**. Dewey applied pragmatic thinking to education. Rather than having students memorize facts or formulas, Dewey proposed "learning by doing." He emphasized the importance of free, public education in promoting democracy. Dewey also championed the development of **normal schools**, colleges that specialized in preparation of future teachers. By 1900, one in five public school teachers had a college degree.

当时最着名的改革家是约翰杜威。杜威将实用主义思想应用于教育。杜威不是让学生记住事实或公式，而是提出"边做边学"。他强调了免费公共教育在促进民主方面的重要性。杜威还支持正规学校的发展，这些学院专门为未来的教师做准备。到 1900 年，五分之一的公立学校教师拥有大学学位。

More and more **high schools** were built in the last three decades of the 1800s. During that period, the number of public high schools increased from 160 to 6,000, and the nation's illiteracy rate was cut nearly in half. Despite the expansion of high schools, still only 4% of American children between the ages of 14 and 17 actually attended a high school. For most Americans, an eighth grade education was sufficient.

在 19 世纪的最后三十年里，越来越多的高中建成了。在此期间，公立高中的数量从 160 个增加到 6000 个，国家的文盲率几乎减少了一半。尽管高中扩大，但仍然只有 4%的 14 至 17 岁的美国儿童实际上读高中。对大多数美国人来说，八年级的教育就足够了。

Higher education was changing as well. In general, the number of colleges increased, owing to the creation of public land-grant colleges by the states and private universities sponsored by philanthropists, such as Stanford and Vanderbilt.

Opportunities for women to attend college were also on the rise. Mt. Holyoke, Smith, Vassar, Wellesley, and Bryn Mawr Colleges provided a liberal arts education equivalent to their males-only counterparts. By 1910, 40% of the nation's college students were female, despite the fact that many professions were still closed to women.

Although nearly 47% of the nation's colleges accepted women, African American attendance at white schools was virtually nonexistent. Black colleges such as Howard, Fisk, and Atlanta University rose to meet this need.

POLITICAL REFORM

The Populist movement influenced progressivism, especially in the promotion of political reform. While rejecting the call for free silver, the progressives embraced the political reforms of secret ballot, initiative, referendum, and recall. Most of these reforms were on the state level. Under the governorship of **Robert La Follette**, Wisconsin became a laboratory for many of these reforms, enacting them first so other states could see an example to copy.

The Populist ideas of an income tax and direct election of senators became the **16th Amendment** and **17th Amendment** to the United States Constitution under progressive direction.

Reformers went further by trying to root out urban corruption by introducing new models of city government. The **city commission** and the **city manager** systems removed important decision making from politicians and placed it in the hands of skilled technicians. Such reforms did a great deal to reduce the power of political machines like New York's Tammany Hall.

ENVIRONMENTALISM

As America grew, Americans were destroying its natural resources. Farmers were depleting the nutrients of the overworked soil. Miners removed layer after layer of valuable topsoil, leading to catastrophic erosion. Everywhere forests were shrinking and wildlife was becoming scarcer.

The growth of cities brought a new interest in preserving the old lands for future generations. Dedicated to saving the wilderness, the **Sierra Club** formed in 1892. **John Muir**, the president of the Sierra Club, worked valiantly to stop the sale of public lands to private developers. At first, most of his efforts fell on deaf ears. Then Theodore Roosevelt moved into the Oval Office, and his voice was finally heard.

高等教育也在发生变化。总的来说，由于斯坦福和范德比尔特等慈善家赞助的州和私立大学建立了公立的赠地学院，大学数量增加了。

女性上大学的机会也在增加。公吨。霍利奥克，史密斯，瓦萨，韦尔斯利和布林莫尔学院提供的文科教育相当于他们的男性同行。到 1910 年，全国 40%的大学生都是女性，尽管许多职业仍然对女性不感兴趣。

虽然全国近47%的大学接受了女性，但非裔美国人在白人学校的就诊率几乎不存在。霍华德，菲斯克和亚特兰大大学等黑人大学都满足了这一需求。

变法

民粹主义运动影响了进步主义，特别是在促进政治改革方面。在拒绝接受自由银的呼吁的同时，进步人士接受了无记名投票，倡议，公投和召回的政治改革。大多数改革都在州一级。在罗伯特·拉弗莱特（Robert La Follette）的掌管下，威斯康星州成为许多改革的实验室，首先制定了这些改革，以便其他州可以看到一个复制的例子。

民粹主义的所得税思想和参议员的直接选举成为美国宪法第 16 修正案和第 17 修正案的进步方向。

改革者通过引入新的城市政府模式来试图铲除城市腐败，从而进一步推进。市政委员会和城市管理者系统取消了政治家的重要决策，并将其置于技术熟练的技术人员手中。这些改革在很大程度上削弱了纽约 Tammany Hall 等政治机器的力量。

环境保护论

随着美国的发展，美国人正在摧毁其自然资源。农民正在耗尽过度劳累土壤的养分。矿工一层又一层地去除了有价值的表土，导致了灾难性的侵蚀。到处都是森林萎缩，野生动植物越来越稀少。

城市的发展带来了为后代保留旧土地的新兴趣。塞拉俱乐部致力于拯救荒野，于 1892 年成立。塞拉俱乐部总裁约翰缪尔勇敢地致力于阻止向私人开发商出售公共土地。起初，他的大多数努力都被置若罔闻。然后西奥多·罗斯福搬进了椭圆形办公室，终于听到了他的声音。

Roosevelt was an avid outdoorsman. He hunted, hiked, and camped whenever possible. He believed that living in nature was good for the body and soul. Although he proved willing to compromise with Republican conservatives on many issues, he was dedicated to protecting the nation's public lands.

The first measure he backed was the Newlands Reclamation Act of 1902. This law encouraged developers and homesteaders to inhabit lands that were useless without massive irrigation works. The lands were sold at a cheap price if the buyer assumed the cost of irrigation and lived on the land for at least five years. The government then used the revenue to irrigate additional lands. Over a million barren acres were rejuvenated under this program.

John Muir and Teddy Roosevelt were more than political acquaintances. In 1903, Roosevelt took a vacation by camping with Muir in Yosemite National Park. The two agreed that making efficient use of public lands

罗斯福是一个狂热的户外运动员。他尽可能地猎杀，徒步旅行和露营。他相信生活在大自然中对身体和灵魂都有好处。虽然他证明愿意在许多问题上与共和党保守派妥协，但他致力于保护国家的公共土地。

他支持的第一项措施是 1902 年的 Newlands Reclamation Act。这项法律鼓励开发商和自耕农居住在没有大规模灌溉工程的情况下无用的土地。如果买方承担灌溉成本并在土地上生活至少五年，那么这些土地就以便宜的价格出售。然后政府利用收入来灌溉额外的土地。根据该计划，超过一百万英亩的土地重新焕发活力。

John Muir 和 Teddy Roosevelt 不仅仅是政治上的熟人。1903 年，罗斯福在约塞米蒂国家公园与穆尔一起露营度

was not enough. Certain wilderness areas should simply be left undeveloped.

Under an 1891 law that empowered the President to declare national forests and withdraw public lands from development, Roosevelt began to preserve wilderness areas. By the time he left office 150,000,000 acres had been deemed national forests, forever safe from the ax and saw. This amounted to three times the total protected lands since the law was enacted.

In 1907, Congress passed a law blocking the President from protecting additional territory in six western states. In typical Roosevelt fashion, he signed the bill into law — but not before protecting 16 million additional acres in those six states.

Conservation fever spread among urban intellectuals. By 1916, there were sixteen national parks with over 300,000 annual visitors. The **Boy Scouts** and **Girl Scouts**, groups originally founded in England, formed to give urban youths a greater appreciation of nature. Memberships in conservation and wildlife societies soared.

Teddy Roosevelt distinguished himself as the greatest Presidential advocate of the environment since Thomas Jefferson. Much damage had been done, but America's beautiful, abundant resources were given a new lease on life.

CONCLUSION

When the United States became involved in the First World War, attention was diverted from domestic issues and progressivism went into decline. While unable to solve the problems of every American, the Progressive Era set the stage for the 20th Century trend of an activist government trying to assist its people.

The Progressives were involved in so many different areas of life, that sometimes it can be hard to pin down a definition. Based on what the Progressives of history did, what do you think? What does it mean to be progressive?

假。两人一致认为有效利用公共土地是不够的。某些荒野地区应该只是未开发。

根据1891年授权总统宣布国家森林并使公共土地退出发展的法律，罗斯福开始保护荒野地区。当他离开办公室时，150,000,000 英亩的土地被认为是国家森林，永远不会被斧头和锯。自法律颁布以来，这相当于受保护土地总数的三倍。

1907 年，国会通过了一项法律，阻止总统保护西部六个州的其他领土。在典型的罗斯福时尚中，他将该法案签署为法律 - 但在此之前，这六个州还没有保护 1600 万英亩土地。

保护热在城市知识分子中传播。到 1916 年，有 16 个国家公园，年访客超过 30 万。最初在英格兰成立的童子军和女童子军团体，旨在让都市青少年更加欣赏大自然。保护和野生动物协会的会员数量猛增。

自托马斯·杰斐逊以来，泰迪罗斯福一直是杰出的总统环境倡导者。已经造成了很大的破坏，但是美国美丽，丰富的资源得到了新的生命。

结论

当美国卷入第一次世界大战时，注意力被转移到国内问题上，进步主义也开始衰落。虽然无法解决每个美国人的问题，但进步时代为 20 世纪的一个激进政府试图帮助其人民的趋势奠定了基础。

进步人士涉及许多不同的生活领域，有时候很难确定定义。根据历史进步者所做的，你怎么看？进步是什么意思？

SUMMARY   摘要

Farmers in the West were upset with the railroad in the late 1800s. They needed railroads to carry their crops to the East where they could be sold to hungry people in growing cities. However, railroads were the only way to move these products, and they were charging enormous rates, so the farmers wanted government to take over the railroads and lower prices. The farmers also wanted inflation which would make it easier for them to repay loans more easily. Thus, they wanted the government to start minting silver money. These two key political goals led to the creation of the Populist Party. A group of farmers led by Jacob Coxey even marched to Washington, DC to demand change. William Jennings Bryan championed these ideas. Although he never won the presidency, Bryan's Cross of Gold Speech captured the Populists' grievances. Government regulation of the railroads and free coinage of silver didn't became law, and eventually, the Democratic Party took on these issues and absorbed the Populist voters.

19 世纪后期，西方的农民对铁路感到不满。他们需要铁路将他们的庄稼运到东方，在那里他们可以卖给发展中城市的饥饿人群。然而，铁路是移动这些产品的唯一途径，他们收取了巨额费用，因此农民希望政府接管铁路并降低价格。农民们也想要通货膨胀，这将使他们更容易偿还贷款。因此，他们希望政府开始铸造银币。这两个关键的政治目标导致了民粹党的建立。由 Jacob Coxey 领导的一群农民甚至前往华盛顿特区要求改变。威廉詹宁斯布莱恩支持这些想法。虽然他从未赢得过总统职位，但布莱恩的黄金十字架演讲引起了民粹主义者的不满。政府对铁路的监管和白银的自由造币并没有成为法律，最终民主党接受了这些问题并吸收了民粹选民。

Other reformers around 1900 were more pragmatic. They looked for small changes they could achieve. These were the Progressives.

1900 年左右的其他改革者更加务实。他们寻找他们可以实现的微小变化。这些是进步人士。

Some political reforms did become law. Initiatives, referendums and recalls became law, making it easier for the people to get rid of corrupt politicians and pass laws that politicians might be unwilling to vote for on their own. City commissioners became common as a way to stop political machines. The 17th Amendment provided for the direct election of senators. Before this, the state legislatures had elected senators.

一些政治改革确实成了法律。倡议，公民投票和召回成为法律，使人民更容易摆脱腐败的政治家，并通过政治家可能不愿自己投票的法律。城市专员成为阻止政治机器的一种方式。第 17 修正案规定了参议员的直接选举。在此之前，州立法机构选举了参议员。

Americans passed the 16th Amendment to make an income tax legal. The graduated income tax required the wealthy to pay a higher percentage of their income than the poor.

美国人通过了第 16 修正案，使所得税合法化。毕业所得税要求富人支付比穷人更高的收入百分比。

Some progressives were inspired by religion. The Social Gospel Movement encouraged people to serve others the way they believed Jesus would have done. They created the YMCA and YWCA. They built settlement houses to help the waves of new immigrants. They opened the Salvation Army to serve the poor. This era of service-minded Christianity is sometimes called the Third Great Awakening.

一些进步人士受到宗教的启发。社会福音运动鼓励人们以他们相信耶稣会做的方式为他人服务。他们创建了 YMCA 和 YWCA。他们建造了定居点，以帮助新移民的浪潮。他们开辟救世军为穷人服务。这个服务意识的基督教时代有时被称为第三次大觉醒。

Other Progressives tried to improve working conditions. The Triangle Shirtwaist Fire showed just how bad working conditions were. These reformers were especially concerned with children who had to work instead of attending school. Although the Keating-Owen Act that was passed at the time was later declared unconstitutional, the Fair Labor Standards Act still stands as protection against exploitation of children as workers.

其他进步人士试图改善工作条件。 Triangle Shirtwaist Fire 表明工作环境有多糟糕。这些改革者特别关注那些不得不上班而不是上学的孩子。尽管当时通过的"基廷 - 欧文法案"后来被宣布为违宪，但"公平劳工标准法"仍然是对作为工人剥削儿童的保护。

Progressives worked to improve public education and the first free, public high schools were built.

Progressives 致力于改善公共教育，并建立了第一所免费的公立高中。

The first environmentalists emerged. President Theodore Roosevelt helped launch the National Park Service as a means of protecting America's natural wonders. The Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts were founded, as was the Sierra Club.

第一批环保主义者出现了。西奥多·罗斯福总统帮助启动了国家公园管理局，以此作为保护美国自然奇观的手段。童子军和女童军成立，塞拉俱乐部也是如此。

KEY CONCEPTS

Free Coinage of Silver: Objective of the Populist Party. They wanted inflation to ease loan repayments and asked the government to go off the gold standard. This was the topic of William Jennings Bryan's famous "Cross of Gold" speech.

Graduated Income Tax: An income tax system in which wealthy individuals pay a higher percentage of their income in taxes than lower class individuals.

Initiative: When citizens can gather signatures and force their legislature to vote on an issue.

Referendum: When citizens can gather signatures and have a proposed law put on a ballot so everyone can vote. This was a way to enact legislation that might otherwise have been prevented by business interests who could pay off elected officials.

Recall: When citizens can gather signatures and force a vote to remove an elected official. This was enacted to curb corruption in government.

Whistle-Stop: Short campaign speeches given from the back of a train car as it stopped in small towns. They were a way spreading a candidate's message in the days before radio, television or the internet.

Laissez Faire: A government policy toward business that favored low taxes and regulation.

Social Darwinism: An idea common at the turn of the century applying the survival of the fittest concept to human experiences. It argued that people and nations that succeed did so because they were inherently superior to those who lost or were less successful.

Pragmatism: A way of approaching problems developed by William James at the turn of the century. It advocated that people did not need to accept life as it was, but could work for change.

Social Gospel Movement: A movement at the turn of the century based on the belief that helping the poor was a Christian virtue. Members of the movement built settlement houses, formed the YMCA and YWCA and founded the Salvation Army.

Settlement House: A place in large cities where new immigrants could come to learn English, job skills, and find childcare while they worked. The most famous was Hull House in Chicago.

Work Permit: Permission granted from a school for a teenager to work. It is one of the effects of the Fair Labor Standards Act and is designed to protect young Americans from the abuses of child labor.

Normal School: A form of college that would train future teachers. They were especially promoted by John Dewey at the turn of the century.

High School: Free public schools for students after 8th grade. They first became common around the turn of the century.

City Commission: A legislative body for a city. Sometimes called a council, this form of government was a progressive reform and limited the influence of corrupt political machines by allowing voters to select city leaders.

City Manager: A professional selected by a city government who executes policy. This was a progressive reform and sought to separate the decision to spend public money from the awarding of contracts, thus reducing corruption.

LOCATIONS

Hull House: The most famous settlement house. It was founded by Jane Addams in Chicago in 1889.

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LAWS

Keating-Owen Act: Law passed in 1916 prohibiting the shipment of products across state lines created with child labor. It was struck down as unconstitutional by the Supreme Court in Hammer v. Dagenhart in 1918. It was replaced by the Fair Labor Standards Act.

Fair Labor Standards Act: Law passed in 1938 protecting workers, and effectively ending child labor in America.

16th Amendment: Constitutional amendment that made a federal income tax legal.

17th Amendment: Constitutional amendment that provided for the direct election of senators.

GOVERNMENT AGENCIES

National Child Labor Committee (NCLC): Government organization established in 1904 and charged with finding ways to reduce child labor.

PEOPLE AND GROUPS

Patrons of Husbandry/Grange: Organization of farmers in the late 1800s who, suffering from high shipping costs and debt, advocated for government regulation or railroad rates and the free coinage of silver.

Populist Party: Political party formed in the late 1800s out of the Grange Movement. They advocated for the free coinage of silver, a graduated income tax and government regulation of business. Their leader was William Jennings Bryan. Eventually their members mostly joined the Democratic Party.

Jacob Coxey: The leader of a group of Populist farmers who marched to Washington, DC in 1894 demanding reform.

Coxey's Army: A group of Populist farmers who marked to Washington, DC in 1894 demanding reform.

William Jennings Bryan: Populist, Progressive, and later democratic leader who championed the rights of farmers. His "Cross of Gold" speech catapulted him to national fame. He ran four times for president but never won.

William McKinley: Republican President first elected in 1896. He defeated William Jennings Bryan. Reelected in 1900, he led the nation through the Spanish-American War, but was assassinated.

Progressives: Groups of people at the turn of the century interested in making change in society, business and government. They were often urban, northeastern, educated, middle class, and protestant.

Progressive Party: A minor political party formed in 1912 to champion progressive issues.

Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA): Organization founded by members of the Social Gospel Movement to give young men a place to improve physical fitness and moral character.

Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA): Organization founded by members of the Social Gospel Movement to give young women a place to improve physical fitness and moral character.

Christian Science: Religious group founded at the turn of the century which tried to find a balance between traditional Christian teaching and new discoveries in science and technology.

Salvation Army: British service organization that was transplanted to America as part of the Social Gospel Movement. They serve the needy by providing shelters for the homeless and soup kitchens.

Jane Addams: Founder of the Settlement House movement.

John Dewey: Advocate for education reform at the turn of the century. He championed the development of normal schools, which were colleges that prepared future teachers.

Robert La Follette: Progressive governor of Wisconsin. He led the way in promoting many reforms in state government.

John Muir: Environmentalist at the turn of the century who became friends with President Theodore Roosevelt and founded the Sierra Club.

Sierra Club: Environmental organization formed in 1892 by John Muir.

Boy Scouts: Organization for boys founded in Britain and brought to America at the turn of the century to promote citizenship and stewardship of the environment.

Girl Scouts: Organization for girls founded in Britain and brought to America at the turn of the century to promote citizenship and stewardship of the environment.

EVENTS

Panic of 1893: Financial crisis in the 1893.

Third Great Awakening: Term for the general increase in religious practice at the turn of the century. It included the Social Gospel Movement an establishment of organizations such as the Salvation Army, YMCA, YWCA, and Christian Science Church.

Triangle Shirtwaist Fire: A well-publicized fire in New York City in which young women chose to jump to their deaths to escape the flames. Public outrage led to important workplace safety reforms.

SPEECHES

Cross of Gold Speech: 1896 speech by William Jennings Bryan at the Democratic National convention arguing for the free coinage of silver.

14 WAS SUFFRAGE ESSENTIAL TO IMPROVE THE LIVES OF WOMEN?

IS THE AMERICAN DREAM ACHIEVABLE?

INTRODUCTION

The story of American women can be told as a series of bursts of activity and reform, and the Progressive Era is one such time. Many of the post active progressive reformers were women, and many of the issues the progressives addressed related directly to the needs and interests of women. Mostly White, upper-middle-class women, many had received a college education and felt obliged to put it to use. About half of these women group never married, choosing independence instead.

For women who did not attend college, life was much different. Many single, middle-class women took jobs in the new cities. Clerical jobs opened as typewriters became indispensable to the modern corporation. The telephone service required switchboard operators and the new department store required sales positions.

For others, life was less glamorous. Wives of immigrants often took extra tenants called boarders into their already crowded tenement homes. By providing food and laundry service at a fee, they generated necessary extra income for the families. Many did domestic work for the middle class to supplement income.

Of all the changes these women Progressives achieved, perhaps none was greater than the right to vote. Long denied to them, women had been fighting for suffrage for over 100 years and the final passage of the 19th Amendment in 1920 was the crowning jewel of their work.

But did women have to win the right to vote in order to make a difference? Was suffrage essential to improve the lives of women?

介绍

美国女性的故事可以被称为一系列活动和改革，而进步时代也是如此。许多积极进取的后改革者都是妇女，而进步人士提出的许多问题直接涉及妇女的需要和利益。大多数是白人，中上阶层的女性，许多人接受过大学教育，并感到有义务将其投入使用。这些女性群体中约有一半从未结过婚，而选择了独立。

对于没有上大学的女性来说，生活差异很大。许多单身中产阶级女性在新城市就业。随着打字机成为现代公司不可或缺的文职工作。电话服务需要总机操作员和新百货商店所需的销售职位。

对于其他人来说，生活不那么富有魅力。移民的妻子经常将额外的租户称为寄宿生，进入他们已经拥挤的唐楼。通过提供收费的食品和洗衣服务，他们为家庭带来了必要的额外收入。许多人为中产阶级做家务工作以补充收入。

在这些妇女进步所取得的所有变化中，也许没有一项比投票权更大。长期以来，女性一直拒绝为 100 多年的选举权而奋斗，而 1920 年第 19 修正案的最终通过是他们工作的最高点。

但女性是否必须赢得投票权才能有所作为？选举权是否对改善妇女的生活至关重要？

VICTORIAN VALUES

The 1800s are often referred to as the Victorian Age, named after Queen Victoria of Great Britain who ruled for 1837 to 1901. The time was one of conservative social rules, especially related to women. As was true in much of Europe, Victorian values dominated American social life. The notion of separate spheres of life for men and women was commonplace. The male sphere included wage work and politics, while the female sphere involved childrearing and domestic work. In the United States, historians have dubbed this idea the **Cult of Domesticity**.

Industrialization and urbanization challenged Victorian values. Men grew weary of toiling tireless hours and yearned for the blossoming leisure opportunities of the age. Women were becoming more educated, but upon graduation found themselves shut out of many professions. Immigrants had never been socialized in the Victorian mindset.

At the vanguard of a social revolt were the young, single, middle-class women who worked in the cities. Attitudes toward sex were loosening in private, yet few were brave enough to discuss the changes publicly.

One exception was **Victoria Woodhull**. In 1871, she declared the right to love the person of her choice as inalienable. Indeed, she professed the right to free love. She and her sister, Tennessee Claflin, published their beliefs in the periodical Woodhull and Claflin's Weekly.

Woodhull's support of free love likely started after she discovered the infidelity of her first husband, Canning. Women who married in the United States during the 1800s were bound into the unions, even if loveless, with few options to escape. Divorce was limited by law and considered socially scandalous. Women who divorced were stigmatized and often ostracized by society. Victoria Woodhull concluded that women should have the choice to leave unbearable marriages.

Woodhull believed in monogamous relationships, although she also said she had the right to change her mind. In her view, the choice to have sex or not was, in every case, the woman's choice, since this would place her in an equal status to the man, who had the capacity to rape and physically overcome a woman, whereas a woman did not have that capacity with respect to a man.

In 1871, Woodhull declared, "To woman, by nature, belongs the right of sexual determination. When the instinct is aroused in her, then and then only should commerce follow. When woman rises from sexual slavery to sexual freedom, into the ownership and control of her sexual organs, and man is obliged to respect this freedom, then will this instinct become pure and holy; then will woman be raised from the iniquity and morbidness in which she now wallows for existence, and the intensity and glory of her creative functions be increased a hundred-fold…"

维多利亚州的价值观

19 世纪被称为维多利亚时代，以 1837 年至 1901 年统治的英国维多利亚女王命名。时间是保守的社会规则之一，尤其与女性有关。正如在欧洲大部分地区一样，维多利亚时代的价值主导了美国社会生活。男女分开的生活领域的概念是司空见惯的。男性领域包括工资和政治，而女性领域则涉及育儿和家庭工作。在美国，历史学家将这个想法称为"家庭崇拜"。

工业化和城市化挑战了维多利亚时代的价值观。男人们厌倦了不知疲倦的时间，渴望这个时代的繁荣休闲机会。女性受教育程度越来越高，但毕业后发现自己被许多职业所排斥。移民从未在维多利亚时代的心态中被社会化。

社会叛乱的先锋是在城市工作的年轻，单身，中产阶级妇女。对性的态度在私下放松，但很少有人勇敢地公开讨论这些变化。

唯一的例外是 Victoria Woodhull。在 1871 年，她宣布爱她所选择的人是不可剥夺的。实际上，她宣称拥有自由恋爱的权利。她和她的妹妹，田纳西州克拉夫林，在期刊 Woodhull 和 Claflin's Weekly 上发表了他们的信仰。

伍德哈尔对自由恋爱的支持可能是在她发现她的第一任丈夫坎宁的不忠之后开始的。在 19 世纪期间在美国结婚的女性被绑在工会中，即使没有爱情，只有很少的选择可以逃脱。离婚受法律限制，被认为是社会丑闻。离婚的女性受到侮辱，经常被社会排斥。维多利亚伍德哈尔得出结论，女性应该可以选择留下无法忍受的婚姻。

伍德哈尔相信一夫一妻制关系，尽管她也说她有权改变主意。在她看来，在每种情况下，选择做爱或不做是女性的选择，因为这会使她处于与男性同等的地位，男性有能力强奸和身体上克服女性，而女性则是对一个男人来说没有那种能力。

在 1871 年，伍德哈尔宣称："对于女性来说，性质上属于性决定权。当她的本能被唤醒时，那么只有商业应该跟随。当女性从性奴役升为性自由，进入性器官的所有权和控制权，男人有义务尊重这种自由时，这种本能就会变得纯洁圣洁;然后，女人会从她现在为生存而存在的罪孽和病态中复活，她的创造性功能的强度和荣耀会增加一百倍……"

In this same speech, Woodhull said of **free love**, "Yes, I am a Free Lover. I have an inalienable, constitutional and natural right to love whom I may, to love as long or as short a period as I can; to change that love every day if I please, and with that right neither you nor any law you can frame have any right to interfere."

To be sure, not everyone agreed.

在同一次演讲中，伍德哈尔谈到自由恋爱，"是的，我是一个自由的爱人。我有一种不可剥夺的，宪法的和自然的爱的权利，我可以尽可能多地或长期地爱你;如果我愿意的话，每天都要改变这种爱，并且没有你和你能制定的任何法律都无权干涉。"

可以肯定的是，并非所有人都同意。

Primary Source: Photograph

Victoria Woodhall, Champion of Free Love

主要来源：照片

维多利亚伍德霍尔，自由恋爱的冠军

Woodhull railed against the hypocrisy of society's tolerating married men who had mistresses and engaged in other sexual dalliances. In 1872, Woodhull publicly criticized well-known clergyman **Henry Ward Beecher** for adultery. Beecher was known to have had an affair with his

伍德哈尔反对社会容忍已婚男人的虚伪，他们有情妇并从事其他性骚扰。 1872 年，伍德哈尔公开批评着名牧师亨利沃德比彻因通奸罪。众所周知，比彻与他的教区居民伊丽莎白·蒂尔顿（Elizabeth Tilton）发生了暧昧关

parishioner Elizabeth Tilton, who had confessed to it, and the scandal was covered nationally.   Woodhull was prosecuted on obscenity charges for sending accounts of the affair through the mail, and she was briefly jailed.

系，后者曾承认这件事，并且丑闻在全国范围内被曝光。 Woodhull 因通过邮件发送有关此事件的帐户而因淫秽罪被起诉，她被短暂监禁。

Primary Source: Editorial Cartoon

"Get thee behind me, Satan!" In this 1872 cartoon by Thomas Nast, a wife carrying a heavy burden of children and a drunk husband, admonishes Satan (Victoria Woodhull), "I'd rather travel the hardest path of matrimony than follow your footsteps." Mrs. Satan's sign reads, "Be saved by free love."

主要来源：编辑漫画

"撒但，让你身体在我身后！"1872 年托马斯·纳斯特（Thomas Nast）的妻子，一位背着沉重负担的孩子和一个醉酒的丈夫的妻子，告诫撒旦（维多利亚伍德哈尔），"我宁愿选择婚姻最艰难的道路而不是跟随 你的脚步声。"撒旦夫人的标语上写着："被自由的爱所拯救。"

"GET THEE BEHIND ME, (MRS.) SATAN!"—[SEE PAGE 345.]
WIFE (with heavy burden). "I'D RATHER TRAVEL THE HARDEST PATH OF MATRIMONY THAN FOLLOW YOUR FOOTSTEPS."

A devout feminist, Woodhull protested the male hold on politics by running for President in 1872. She became the first female American to do so in a time when women did not even enjoy the right to vote. Her criticisms of Beecher and arrest for obscenity fueled sensational coverage in the media during her campaign.

作为一名虔诚的女权主义者，伍德哈尔在 1872 年竞选总统，抗议男性对政治的控制。在女性甚至不享有投票权的时代，她成为第一位这样做的美国女性。她对比彻的

批评和对淫秽的逮捕在她的竞选期间引起了媒体的轰动。

BIRTH CONTROL

For many feminists, legalizing contraception became a central issue in the campaign for equal social and political rights. In the nineteenth century, **contraception** was often under attack from religious groups, loosely known as the purity movement, which were composed primarily of Protestant moral reformers and middle-class women. This anti-contraception campaign attacked birth control as an immoral practice that promoted prostitution and venereal disease. Anthony Comstock, a postal inspector and leader in the purity movement, successfully lobbied for the passage of the 1873 **Comstock Act**, a federal law prohibiting the mailing of, "any article or thing designed or intended for the prevention of conception or procuring of abortion," as well as any form of contraceptive information. Many states also passed similar laws, collectively known as the Comstock laws, that extended the federal law by outlawing the use of contraceptives as well as their distribution.   In response, contraception went underground. Drugstores continued to sell condoms as "rubber goods" and cervical caps as "womb supporters."

At the turn of the century, an energetic movement arose that sought to overturn anti-obscenity laws and the Comstock Acts. Centered in the Greenwich Village neighborhood of New York City, the movement was largely composed of radicals, feminists, anarchists, and atheists such as Ezra Heywood, Moses Harman, D.M. Bennett, **Emma Goldman**, and **Margaret Sanger**. In 1913, Sanger worked in New York's Lower East Side, often with poor women who were suffering severe medical problems due to frequent pregnancies, childbirth and self-induced abortions.

Under the influence of Goldman and the Free Speech League, Sanger became determined to challenge the Comstock Acts that outlawed the dissemination of contraceptive information. In 1914, she launched The Woman Rebel, an eight-page monthly newsletter that promoted contraception using the slogan, "No Gods, No Masters," and proclaimed that each woman should be, "the absolute mistress of her own body." Sanger coined the term **birth control**, which first appeared in her newsletter. Sanger's goal of challenging the law was fulfilled when she was indicted in August 1914, but the prosecution focused their attention on articles Sanger had written about marriage, rather than those about contraception. Afraid that she might be sent to prison without an opportunity to argue for birth control in court, Sanger fled to England to escape arrest. While Sanger was in Europe, her husband continued her work, which led to his arrest after he distributed a copy of a birth-control pamphlet to an undercover postal worker.

New York state law prohibited the distribution of contraceptives or even contraceptive information, but Sanger hoped to exploit a provision in the law that permitted doctors to prescribe contraceptives for the

计划生育

对于许多女权主义者来说，合法化避孕成为平等社会和政治权利运动的核心问题。在十九世纪，避孕经常受到宗教团体的攻击，这些宗教团体被称为纯洁运动，主要由新教道德改革者和中产阶级妇女组成。这项反避孕运动将生育控制作为一种促进卖淫和性病的不道德行为。邮政检查员兼纯洁运动领导人安东尼·康斯托克成功游说1873 年"康斯托克法案"的通过，这是一项联邦法律，禁止邮寄"任何旨在或旨在预防堕胎或构成堕胎的物品或物品，"以及任何形式的避孕信息。许多州也通过了类似的法律，统称为康斯托克法律，通过禁止使用避孕药具及其分销来扩展联邦法律。作为回应，避孕进入了地下。药店继续销售避孕套作为"橡胶制品"和宫颈帽作为"子宫支持者"。

在世纪之交，出现了一场精力充沛的运动，试图推翻反淫秽法和康斯托克法案。该运动以纽约市格林威治村附近为中心，主要由激进分子，女权主义者，无政府主义者和无神论者组成，如 Ezra Heywood，Moses Harman，D.M。贝内特，艾玛高曼和玛格丽特桑格。1913 年，桑格在纽约下东区工作，往往是由于经常怀孕，分娩和自我堕胎而遭受严重医疗问题的贫困妇女。

在高盛和言论自由联盟的影响下，桑格决心挑战禁止传播避孕信息的康斯托克法案。 1914 年，她推出了 The Woman Rebel，这是一份长达 8 页的月刊，通过口号"没有上帝，没有大师"促进避孕，并宣称每个女人应该是"她自己身体的绝对情妇。"桑格创造生育控制这个词，最早出现在她的通讯中。 1914 年 8 月她被起诉时，桑格的挑战法律的目标得以实现，但检方将注意力集中在桑格写的关于婚姻的文章上，而不是那些关于避孕的文章。由于害怕她可能被送进监狱而没有机会在法庭上争辩避孕，桑格逃到英格兰逃避逮捕。当桑格在欧洲时，她的丈夫继续工作，导致他在将一份生育控制小册子分发给卧底邮政工人后被捕。

纽约州法律禁止分发避孕药具甚至避孕信息，但桑格希望利用法律中允许医生为避免疾病开出避孕药的规定。

prevention of disease.   On October 16, 1916, she opened the **Brownsville Clinic** in Brooklyn. It was an immediate success, with more than 100 women visiting on the first day. A few days after the clinic's opening, an undercover policewoman purchased a cervical cap at the clinic, and Sanger was arrested.   Refusing to walk, Sanger and a coworker were dragged out of the clinic by police officers. The clinic was shut down, and no other birth-control clinics were opened in the United States until the 1920s. However, the publicity from Sanger's trial generated immense enthusiasm for the cause, and by the end of 1917, there were more than 30 birth-control organizations in the United States.

1916 年 10 月 16 日，她在布鲁克林开设了布朗斯维尔诊所。这是一个立竿见影的成功，第一天有 100 多名女性来访。诊所开业几天后，一名卧底女警在诊所购买了一顶颈椎帽，Sanger 被捕。警察拒绝走路，桑格和同事被警察拖出诊所。该诊所被关闭，直到 20 世纪 20 年代才在美国开设其他生育控制诊所。然而，桑格审判的宣传对这一事业产生了极大的热情，到 1917 年底，美国有 30 多个避孕组织。

Primary Source: Photograph

Margaret Sanger surrounded by her supporters as she exits a New York courthouse after one of her multiple encounters with the anti-contraception legal system.

主要来源：照片

玛格丽特桑格在与避孕法律系统多次遭遇之后离开纽约法院时，被她的支持者所包围。

In the aftermath of Sanger's trial, the birth-control movement began to grow from its radical, working-class roots into a campaign backed by society women and liberal professionals.   Sanger and her fellow advocates toned down their radical rhetoric and emphasized the socioeconomic benefits of birth control, a policy that led to increasing acceptance by mainstream Americans. Media coverage increased, and several silent motion pictures produced in the 1910s featured birth control as a theme. Sanger's organization grew, changed names, and has developed over time into **Planned Parenthood**, a nation-wide chain of clinics that provide contraceptive education, women's health services, as well as abortions.

The birth-control movement received an unexpected political boost during World War I, as hundreds of soldiers were diagnosed with

在桑格审判之后，生育控制运动开始从激进的工人阶级根源发展成为一个由社会妇女和自由派专业人士支持的运动。桑格和她的同伴倡导者淡化了他们的激进言论，并强调了节育的社会经济效益，这一政策导致主流美国人越来越多地接受。媒体报道有所增加，20 世纪 10 年代制作的几部无声电影以节育为主题。桑格的组织发展壮大，名称不断变化，并随着时间的推移逐渐发展为计划生育，计划生育，全国范围内的诊所连锁提供避孕教育，妇女健康服务以及堕胎。

在第一次世界大战期间，生育控制运动得到了意想不到的政治推动，因为数百名士兵在海外被诊断出患有梅毒

syphilis or gonorrhea while overseas. The military undertook an extensive education campaign, focusing on abstinence, but also offering some contraceptive guidance. Previously, the military did not distribute condoms, or even endorse their use, making the United States the only military force in World War I that did not supply condoms to its troops. When American soldiers were in Europe, they found rubber condoms readily available, and when they returned to America, they continued to use condoms as their preferred method of birth control.

The military's anti-venereal-disease campaign marked a major turning point for the movement. It was the first time a government institution had engaged in a sustained, public discussion of sexual matters. The government's public discourse changed sex into a legitimate topic of scientific research, and it transformed contraception from an issue of morals to an issue of public health.

Although Sanger and supporters of birth control were unsuccessful in the early-1900s, their efforts moved the issue forward and made it possible for women's rights advocates in the 1960s and 1970s to make birth control, especially birth control pills, a legal and acceptable part of American life.

MULLER V. OREGON

In 1909, the Supreme Court decided an important case regarding women in the workplace. The state of Oregon had passed a law limiting the number of hours women were allowed to work outside the home. Legislators at the time believed that women needed to be protected, especially women who were at an age where they might be having and raising young children. Curt Muller, the owner of a laundry business, was put on trial for violating the Oregon law, and convicted of making his female employee work more than ten hours in a single day. Muller was fined $10, but appealed his case all the way to the Supreme Court.

In the case **Muller v. Oregon**, the Supreme Court found that Oregon's limit on the working hours of women was constitutional under the 14th Amendment, as it was justified by the strong state interest in protecting women's health.

The central question of the Muller case was whether women's freedom to negotiate a contract with an employer should be equal to a man's. In 1908, gender discrimination was commonplace. The Oregon law was not designed to hurt women, but in the thinking at the time, to protect them, and the Supreme Court decided that the government could enact labor laws that were intended to nurture women's welfare for the "benefit of all" people did not violate a woman's right to make contracts.

The case included a few quotes that shed light on societal attitudes about gender roles at the turn of the century. The court wrote, "woman has always been dependent upon man," and "in the struggle for subsistence she is not an equal competitor with her brother." And,

或淋病。军方开展了广泛的教育活动，重点是禁欲，但也提供一些避孕指导。以前，军方没有分发避孕套，甚至不支持使用安全套，使美国成为第一次世界大战中唯一没有向其部队提供安全套的军事力量。当美国士兵在欧洲时，他们发现橡胶避孕套随时可用，当他们返回美国时，他们继续使用安全套作为他们首选的节育方法。

军方的反性病运动标志着这场运动的一个重要转折点。这是政府机构首次对性问题进行持续的公开讨论。政府的公共话语将性别变为科学研究的合法话题，并将避孕从道德问题转变为公共卫生问题。

虽然桑格和生育控制的支持者在 20 世纪初期没有成功，但他们的努力推动了这一问题的发展，使得妇女权利倡导者在 20 世纪 60 年代和 70 年代有可能实现节育，特别是避孕药，这是一个合法且可接受的部分。美国生活。

MULLER V. OREGON

1909 年，最高法院决定了一个关于工作场所中妇女的重要案件。俄勒冈州通过了一项限制妇女被允许在家外工作的小时数的法律。当时的立法者认为，妇女需要得到保护，特别是那些处于可能年龄和抚养幼儿的妇女。洗衣业务的老板 Curt Muller 因违反俄勒冈州法律而被审判，并被裁定让他的女员工在一天内工作超过十个小时。穆勒被罚款 10 美元，但他一直向最高法院上诉。

在穆勒诉俄勒冈案的案件中，最高法院裁定，根据第 14 修正案，俄勒冈州对女性工作时间的限制是符合宪法规定的，因为国家对保护妇女健康的强烈兴趣证明了这一点。

穆勒案的核心问题是，妇女与雇主谈判合同的自由是否应该等同于男人。 1908 年，性别歧视司空见惯。俄勒冈州的法律不是为了伤害女性，而是为了保护女性，最高法院决定政府可以颁布劳动法，旨在为所有人的利益培养女性的福利。不违反女性的合同权利。

该案例包括一些引文，阐明了世纪之交社会对性别角色的态度。法院写道，"女人一直依赖男人"，"在争取生存的斗争中，她与她的兄弟不是平等的竞争对手。"而且，也许最重要的是，案件表明美国人仍然重视女性，主要

perhaps most importantly, the case showed that Americans still valued women primarily because of their role as mothers. The court wrote, "her physical structure and a proper discharge of her maternal functions — having in view not merely her own health, but the well-being of the race — justify legislation to protect her from the greed as well as the passion of man… The limitations which this statute places upon her contractual powers, upon her right to agree with her employer as to the time she shall labor, are not imposed solely for her benefit, but also largely for the benefit of all."

The case divided feminists at the time. Groups like the National Consumer League, which included noted feminists Florence Kelley and Josephine Goldmark, supported the law because it limited working hours for women. However, many equal-rights feminists opposed the ruling, since it allowed laws based on stereotyped gender roles that restricted women's rights and financial independence. While it provided protection from long hours to white women, it did not extend to women of color, food processors, agricultural workers, and women who worked in white-collar jobs. Although later laws have eroded the Muller decision, women still are not guaranteed equal protection under the Constitution.

SUFFRAGE

Women's **suffrage** in the United States was established over the course of several decades, first in various states and localities, sometimes on a limited basis, and then nationally in 1920.

The demand for women's suffrage began to gather strength in the 1840s, emerging from the broader movement for women's rights. In 1848, the Seneca Falls Convention, the first women's rights convention, passed a resolution in favor of women's suffrage despite opposition from some of its organizers, who believed the idea was too extreme. By the time of the first National Women's Rights Convention in 1850, however, gaining suffrage was becoming an increasingly important aspect of the movement's activities.

At the conclusion of the Civil War in 1865, women activists were optimistic about the possibility that they would gain suffrage along with newly freed African Americans. However, activists such as Frederick Douglass and Henry Blackwell argued successfully that the 1860s was the time of the Black male. They feared that linking women's suffrage to female suffrage would doom passage of the 15th Amendment. Although the leading feminists of the time argued otherwise, the Civil War resulted only in universal male suffrage, a step in the right direction to be sure, but still, half of all Americans remained outside the political process.

是因为她们的作为母亲的角色。法院写道，"她的身体结构和适当的母性功能 - 不仅仅考虑到她自己的健康，而且考虑到种族的福祉 - 证明立法能够保护她免受贪婪和男人的激情。……这项法规对她的合同权力的限制，以及她与雇主就其工作时间达成协议的权利，并不仅仅是为了她的利益，而且主要是为了所有人的利益。

该案件在当时分裂了女权主义者。像全国消费者联盟这样的团体，其中包括着名的女权主义者佛罗伦斯凯利和约瑟芬金马克，支持这项法律，因为它限制了女性的工作时间。然而，许多平等权利的女权主义者反对这一裁决，因为它允许基于陈规定型的性别角色的法律限制妇女的权利和经济独立。虽然它为白人女性提供长时间保护，但并没有扩展到有色女性，食品加工商，农业工人和从事白领工作的女性。虽然后来的法律侵蚀了穆勒的决定，但根据宪法，妇女仍然无法得到平等的保护。

选举权

美国妇女的选举权是在几十年的时间里建立的，首先是在各个州和地方，有时是在有限的基础上，然后是 1920 年的全国性。

在更广泛的妇女权利运动中，妇女选举权的需求在 19 世纪 40 年代开始逐渐增强。 1848 年，第一届妇女权利大会塞内卡瀑布会议通过了一项有利于妇女选举权的决议，尽管一些组织者反对，他们认为这个想法过于极端。然而，到 1850 年第一次全国妇女权利公约时，获得选举权正成为该运动活动日益重要的一个方面。

在 1865 年内战结束时，女性活动家们对他们与新获释的非裔美国人一起获得选举权的可能性持乐观态度。然而，弗雷德里克·道格拉斯（Frederick Douglass）和亨利·布莱克威尔（Henry Blackwell）等积极分子成功地辩称，19 世纪 60 年代是黑人男性的时代。他们担心将妇女的选举权与女性选举权联系起来会导致第 15 修正案失效。虽然当时的主要女权主义者认为不同，但内战只是普遍的男性选举权，这是朝着正确方向迈出的一步，但是，仍然有一半的美国人仍在政治进程之外。

Primary Source: Drawing

Susan B. Anthony, one of the first advocates for women's suffrage. Anthony was instrumental in the movement in the 1800s but passed away before the final push for the ratification of the 19th Amendment.
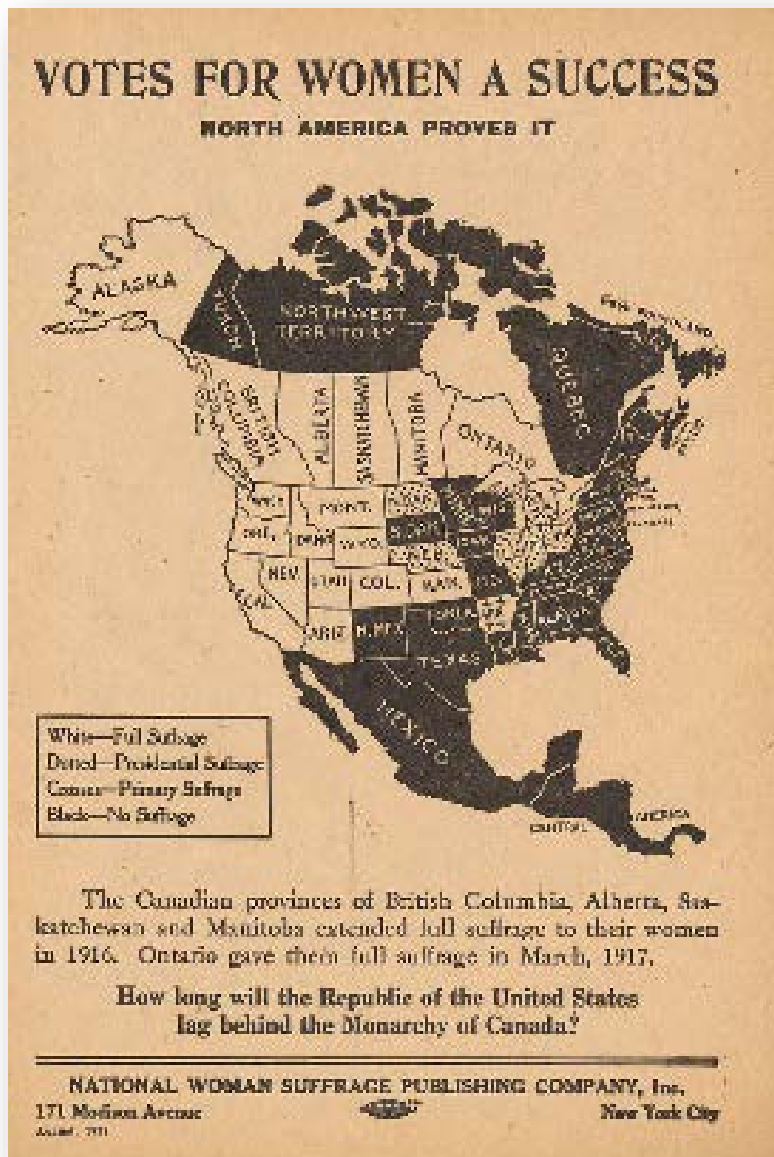
主要来源：绘图

苏珊·安东尼（Susan B. Anthony），最早提倡女性选举权的人之一。安东尼在 19 世纪的运动中发挥了重要作用，但在最终推动批准第 19 修正案之前就去世了。

The first national suffrage organizations were established in 1869 after the disappointment of the 15th Amendment. **Susan B. Anthony** and **Elizabeth Cady Stanton** led one group, and **Lucy Stone** led another. After years of rivalry, the two organizations merged in 1890 and became the **National American Woman Suffrage Association** (NAWSA) with Anthony as its leading force.

Hoping the Supreme Court would rule that women had a constitutional right to vote, suffragists made several attempts to vote in the early 1870s and then filed lawsuits when they were turned away. Anthony actually succeeded in voting in 1872 but was arrested for that act and found guilty in a widely publicized trial that gave the movement fresh momentum. After the Supreme Court ruled against them in 1875, suffragists began the decades-long campaign for an amendment to the Constitution that would enfranchise women. Much of the movement's energy, however, went toward working for suffrage on a state-by-state basis.

在第 15 修正案失望后，第一批全国选举权组织于 1869 年成立。Susan B. Anthony 和 Elizabeth Cady Stanton 领导了一个小组，Lucy Stone 领导另一个小组。经过多年的竞争，这两个组织于 1890 年合并，成为全美女子选举权协会（NAWSA），以安东尼为主导力量。

希望最高法院裁定妇女拥有宪法规定的选举权，女权主义者在 19 世纪 70 年代早期曾多次投票，然后在她们被拒绝时提起诉讼。安东尼实际上在 1872 年成功投票，但因该行为而被捕，并在一项广泛宣传的审判中被判有罪，这使该运动焕发出新的动力。在 1875 年最高法院对他们作出裁决之后，女权主义者开始了长达数十年的宪法修正案运动，该运动将使女性获得选举权。然而，大部分运动的能量都是逐个国家的选举权。

VOTES FOR WOMEN A SUCCESS

NORTH AMERICA PROVES IT

White—Full Suffrage
Dotted—Presidential Suffrage
Corner—Primary Suffrage
Black—No Suffrage

The Canadian provinces of British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba extended full suffrage to their women in 1916. Ontario gave them full suffrage in March, 1917.

How long will the Republic of the United States lag behind the Monarchy of Canada?

NATIONAL WOMAN SUFFRAGE PUBLISHING COMPANY, Inc,
171 Madison Avenue   New York City
August, 1917.

Primary Source: Flyer

This map, published by the National Woman Suffrage Publishing Company shows the states that enacted laws granting women's suffrage as of 1916. The states and Canadian provinces in white allowed full suffrage. Clearly, western states were ahead of the trend.

主要来源：传单

这张由国家妇女选举出版公司出版的地图显示了截至 1916 年颁布的赋予妇女选举权的法律的州。州和加拿大的白人省允许完全投票。 显然，西方国家领先于这一趋势。

Progressive reform campaigns strengthened the suffrage movement. Many of its participants saw women's suffrage as yet another Progressive goal, and they believed that the addition of women to the electorate would help their movement achieve its other goals. In 1912, the Progressive Party endorsed women's suffrage. The burgeoning Socialist movement also aided the drive for women's suffrage in some areas.

In 1916, **Alice Paul** formed the **National Woman's Party** (NWP), a militant group focused on the passage of a national suffrage amendment. More than 200 NWP supporters, known as the "Silent Sentinels," were arrested in 1917 while picketing the White House. Some of the

渐进式改革运动加强了选举权运动。许多与会者认为妇女的选举权是另一个进步的目标，他们认为增加妇女选民将有助于她们的运动实现其他目标。 1912 年，进步党赞同妇女的选举权。蓬勃发展的社会主义运动也有助于推动妇女在某些领域的选举权。

1916 年，爱丽丝保罗组建了全国妇女党（NWP），这是一个专注于通过全国选举修正案的激进组织。超过 200 名 NWP 支持者，被称为"沉默的哨兵"，于 1917 年在白宫劫持时被捕。一些抗议者进行了绝食抗议，并在

protestors went on a hunger strike and endured forced feeding after being sent to prison. The two-million-member NAWSA, by then under the leadership of **Carrie Chapman Catt**, also made a national suffrage amendment its top priority.

被送进监狱后忍受强迫喂养。届时，由 Carrie Chapman Catt 领导的 200 万名 NAWSA 也将全国选举权修正案作为其首要任务。

Brewers and distillers, typically rooted in the German-American community, opposed women's suffrage, fearing that women voters would favor the prohibition of alcohol. German Lutherans and German Catholics typically opposed prohibition and women's suffrage. They favored paternalistic families in which the husband decided the family position on public affairs. Their opposition to women's suffrage was subsequently used as an argument in favor of suffrage when German Americans became pariahs during World War I.

通常植根于德美社区的酿酒商和酿酒商反对女性的选举权，担心女性选民会赞成禁酒。德国路德教会和德国天主教徒通常反对禁止和女性选举权。他们支持家长式家庭，其中丈夫决定家庭在公共事务上的地位。当德国美国人在第一次世界大战期间成为贱民时，他们反对妇女的选举权被用作支持选举权的论据。

Some other businesses, such as Southern cotton mills, opposed suffrage because they feared that women voters would support the drive to eliminate child labor. Political machines, such as Tammany Hall in New York City, opposed it because they feared that the addition of female voters would dilute the control they had established over groups of male voters.

其他一些企业，如南方棉纺厂，反对选举权，因为他们担心女性选民会支持消除童工的动力。政治机器，如纽约市的 Tammany Hall，反对它，因为他们担心增加女性选民会削弱他们对男性选民群体的控制。

Anti-suffrage forces, initially called the "remonstrants," organized as early as 1870 when the Women's Anti-Suffrage Association of Washington was formed. Widely known as the "antis," they eventually created organizations in some 20 states. In 1911, the **National Association Opposed to Woman Suffrage** was created. It claimed 350,000 members and opposed women's suffrage, feminism, and socialism. It argued that woman suffrage, "would reduce the special protections and routes of influence available to women, destroy the family, and increase the number of socialist-leaning voters."

早在 1870 年华盛顿妇女反对选举权协会成立时就组织了反叛势力，最初被称为"叛徒"。它们被广泛称为"antis"，最终在大约 20 个州创建了组织。 1911 年，全国反对妇女选举协会成立。它声称有 35 万名成员，反对妇女的选举权，女权主义和社会主义。它认为女性选举权"会减少女性可以获得的特殊保护和影响途径，摧毁家庭，增加社会主义倾向选民的数量。"

Many upper class women opposed suffrage for women. They had personal access to powerful politicians and feared that having the right to vote themselves would mean surrendering their influence.

许多上层阶级妇女反对妇女选举权。他们可以亲自接触到强大的政治家，并担心自己有权投票，这意味着放弃他们的影响力。

Most often the "antis" believed that politics was dirty and that women's involvement would surrender the moral high ground that women claimed, and that partisanship would disrupt local club work for civic betterment.

大多数情况下，"反对者"认为政治是肮脏的，女性的参与会放弃女性声称的道德制高点，而党派关系会破坏当地俱乐部的公民改善工作。

Despite opposition, the movement for universal suffrage gained ground, especially in the West. Because states manage elections, individual states began passing laws granting women the right to vote. Many western states, which had recently been settled, were still in the process of establishing traditions. Pioneer women who struggled along the trails west and labored under the sun alongside their husbands, brothers, fathers and sons to tame the soil of the prairie were in no mood to take a back seat to the politically. Eastern states, with hundreds of years of traditional gender divisions were less eager to adopt reformist laws.

尽管遭到反对，普选权运动仍然取得了进展，特别是在西方。由于各州管理选举，各州开始通过法律赋予妇女投票权。最近定居的许多西方国家仍在建立传统。在西边的小路上挣扎并在阳光下与丈夫，兄弟，父亲和儿子一起努力驯服草原土壤的先锋妇女，没有心情在政治上退居二线。拥有数百年传统性别分裂的东部各州不太愿意采用改良主义法律。

Paul, Catt and the advocates for suffrage were persistent however, and after a hard-fought series of votes in Congress and in state legislatures, the **19th Amendment** became part of the Constitution in 1920. It reads, "The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex."

When the Founding Fathers were drafting the Declaration of Independence, Abigail Adams wrote to her husband urging them to "remember the ladies" in their new government. Unfortunately, the Founding Fathers did not, and it took another 144 years and the work of countless women to guarantee both genders the right to vote.

然而，保罗，卡特和选举权的支持者仍然坚持不懈，经过国会和州立法机构的一系列激烈的投票，第19修正案于 1920 年成为宪法的一部分。它写道："美国公民的权利美国或任何国家不得以性别为由拒绝或删减投票国。"

当开国元勋正在起草独立宣言时，阿比盖尔亚当斯写信给她的丈夫，敦促他们在新政府中"记住女士们"。不幸的是，开国元勋没有，并且花了 144 年的时间和无数女性的工作来保证两性都有投票权。

CONCLUSION

The passage of the 19th Amendment has been rightly celebrated throughout history as an important step toward gender equality and the expansion of political equality in America. In a land where "all men are created equal," it was a chance to include women in that idea.

But suffrage did not radically change the lives of women. The same jobs were available, and the same jobs were closed to women. Nearly 100 years later, women are doing much more in our society, but we have still not elected a women president. Which leads us to our question. Could women have achieved all they did without the right to vote? Could they have opened doors of opportunity in education, health and business if the 19th Amendment had never been ratified?

What do you think? Was suffrage essential to improve the lives of women?

结论

第19修正案的通过在整个历史中得到了正确的庆祝，这是迈向性别平等和扩大美国政治平等的重要一步。在一个"人人生而平等"的土地上，这是一个让女性融入这个想法的机会。

但选举权并没有从根本上改变妇女的生活。可以获得相同的工作，同样的工作也不对妇女开放。近 100 年后，女性在我们的社会中做得更多，但我们还没有选出女总统。这引出了我们的问题。如果没有投票权，妇女能否取得所有成就？如果第19修正案从未被批准，他们能否在教育，健康和商业方面打开机会之门？

你怎么看？选举权是否对改善妇女的生活至关重要？

SUMMARY

During the 1800s, Americans were very conservative about the roles of men and women and especially about how women could behave and dress. In the 1870s, Victoria Woodhull challenged these beliefs. She championed free love, the idea that she could love whoever she wanted and change her mind as much as she wanted. Her ideas were controversial, but she was an important early challenger to social restrictions.

Margaret Sanger believed that women couldn't be free if they had no control over how many children they would have. She challenged the Comstock Act which prohibited the promotion of birth control. She went to jail multiple times for sending information about birth control through the mail and for opening a birth control clinic in New York City. Her organization grew and is now called Planned Parenthood. Although she wasn't successfully able to change the law at the time, the government did become concerned about promoting reproductive health during World War I when American troops started contracting STDs. After the war, Americans continued to use condoms they had learned about while in the army.

Women suffered a legal setback in their quest for equality in the Muller v. Oregon Supreme Court Case when the Court ruled that laws that limited the number of hours women could work were constitutional. They reasoned that the primary role women played in society was to be mothers and that allowing women to work as much as they wanted might hurt society.

Women finally won the right to vote in 1920 with the passage of the 19th Amendment. Women had been working for this right since the early 1800s, but Alice Paul and Carrie Chapman Catt succeeded in convincing men in government to approve the amendment. Many western states had already granted women the right to vote in state elections.

摘要

在19世纪，美国人对男女角色非常保守，尤其是女性如何表现和穿着。在 19 世纪 70 年代，维多利亚伍德哈尔挑战了这些信仰。她支持自由恋爱，这种想法是她可以爱任何她想要的，并且尽可能地改变她的想法。她的想法引起了争议，但她是社会限制的重要早期挑战者。

玛格丽特桑格认为，如果女性无法控制自己拥有多少孩子，她们就无法获得自由。她质疑禁止促进节育的康斯托克法案。她多次入狱，通过邮件发送有关节育的信息，并在纽约市开设一家避孕诊所。她的组织发展壮大，现在被称为计划生育。虽然她当时没能成功改变法律，但在第一次世界大战期间，当美国军队开始接收性传播疾病时，政府确实开始担心促进生殖健康。战争结束后，美国人继续使用他们在军队中学到的避孕套。

在法院裁定限制妇女可以工作的小时数的法律是符合宪法的情况下，妇女在穆勒诉俄勒冈州最高法院案件中寻求平等时遭受了法律挫折。他们认为，女性在社会中扮演的主要角色是母亲，允许女性按照自己的意愿工作可能会伤害社会。

随着第 19 修正案的通过，妇女最终在 1920 年赢得了投票权。自 19 世纪初以来，女性一直在为此工作，但 Alice Paul 和 Carrie Chapman Catt 成功说服政府中的男性批准修正案。许多西方国家已经赋予妇女在州选举中投票的权利。

KEY CONCEPTS

Cult of Domesticity: Idea that men should leave home to work and earn money while women stayed at home to cook, clean and raise children. It developed in the early 1800s with the onset of the industrial revolution.

Free Love: The idea that women should be able to love whomever they want for however long they wanted, and change their mind as many times as they wanted. It was championed by Victoria Woodhull in the late 1800s.

Contraception: Any form of birth control.

Birth Control: Any form of contraception. The term was coined by Margaret Sanger.

Suffrage: The right to vote.

LOCATIONS

Brownsville Clinic: Clinic opened in Brooklyn, NY by Margaret Sanger to provide birth control. It was closed down and Sanger was arrested for violation of the Comstock Act.

LAWS & COURT CASES

Comstock Act: Law passed in 1873 the prohibited the distribution of birth control and any material promoting birth control. It was used to prosecute Margaret Sanger.

Muller v. Oregon: 1909 Supreme Court case that upheld a law limiting the number of hours women could work outside the home.

19th Amendment: Constitutional amendment ratified in 1920 granting women the right to vote.

PEOPLE AND GROUPS

Victoria Woodhull: Women's rights advocate in the late 1800s. She was most famously a champion of free love.

Henry Ward Beecher: Famous preacher in the late 1800s in Brooklyn, NY. He had an affair with a married petitioner whose husband sued him. The trial was a nationally publicized public scandal. Victoria Woodhull used the case to argue for free love.

Emma Goldman: Famous socialist activist at the turn of the century. She advocated for labor and women's rights, but lost credibility due to her connection to the Haymarket Square riot and President McKinley's assassin.

Margaret Sanger: Champion of birth control in the early 1900s.

Planned Parenthood: Modern organization originally founded by Margaret Sanger. They provide health services and information to women, and most controversially, abortions.

Susan B. Anthony: Early champion of women's suffrage. She headed the NAWSA. She was honored when a silver dollar coin was minted in 1979 with her likeness.

Elizabeth Cady Stanton: Early champion of women's suffrage. She cofounded a group with Susan B. Anthony.

Lucy Stone: Early champion of women's suffrage. Her organization merged with that of Susan B. Anthony and Elizabeth Stanton's to form the NAWSA.

National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA): Major organization working for women's suffrage. It was led first by Susan B. Anthony and later by Carrie Chapman Catt.

Alice Paul: Advocate for women's suffrage in the early 1900s. She founded the National Women's Party and used more aggressive tactics to publicize the movement.

National Woman's Party (NWP): Organization founded by Alice Paul in 1916 to work for women's suffrage. They used more aggressive tactics to spread their message.

Carrie Chapman Catt: Leader of the NAWSA in the early 1900s. She succeeded Susan B. Anthony and saw the ratification of the 19th Amendment.

National Association Opposed to Woman Suffrage: Organization in the early 1900s which fought against the passage of the 19th Amendment.

IS THE
AMERICAN
DREAM
ACHIEVABLE?

The Gilded Age was a time when Americans made tremendous leaps forward in business. We became an urban nation. We reformed our government and expanded voting rights. We were compassionate. We were readers and our writers helped us understand both the good and the bad in society.

However, it was not a happy time for everyone. Thousands of poor suffered in terrible conditions. Fleeing poverty in other nations did not guarantee wealth in this one. Immigrants faced polluted, dangerous cities and long work for little pay. Horatio Alger may have written novels that celebrated the American Dream, but not everyone was able to make that dream come true. Many Americans simply were poor their entire lives.

The idea that hard work would lead to upward social mobility and success rand directly counter to the Social Darwinists who argued that success was a matter of survival of the fittest in the same way that animals and plants in nature thrived or failed. Humans and businesses were no different. The strongest were successful, and success was a sign of superiority. Dreams had nothing to do with it.

What do you think? Is the American Dream achievable?

镀金时代是美国人在商业上取得巨大飞跃的时候。我们成了一个城市国家。我们改革了政府并扩大了投票权。我们很有同情心。我们是读者，我们的作家帮助我们了解社会的好与坏。

然而，对每个人来说，这不是一个快乐的时光。成千上万的穷人在恶劣的环境中受苦。逃离其他国家的贫困并不能保证这一方面的财富。移民面临着污染严重的危险城市，长期以来工资很少。 Horatio Alger 可能会写一些庆祝美国梦的小说，但不是每个人都能实现梦想。许多美国人一生都很穷。

努力工作将导致向上社会流动和成功的想法与社会达尔文主义者直接相反，他们认为成功是适者生存的问题，就像自然界中的动植物繁荣或失败一样。人类和企业也不例外。最强者是成功的，成功是优越感的标志。梦与它无关。

你怎么看？美国梦是否可以实现？

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